



















# Education *for* Librarianship

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EDITED BY

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# Introduction

“**E**DUCATION FOR Librarianship” was selected by the faculty of the Graduate Library School as the topic for the 1948 Library Conference for three reasons. First, the summer of 1948 marked the end of the first twenty years of formal classroom instruction in the School. Although the Graduate Library School had been formally established earlier than that, it was in the fall of 1927 that the first small group of students sat together in a class on certain advanced problems in the field of librarianship. From that beginning the educational program of the School has developed through the years. It seemed appropriate to note this occasion by devoting the attention of the annual Conference of the Graduate Library School to the problems of educating librarians—in 1948 as in 1927 a matter of major concern to the profession.

This suggests a second—and more important—reason for selecting the topic. Historians of American librarianship will undoubtedly note the years 1946 to 1950 as a period of major revision in the system of library education in this country, perhaps of equal importance to the period of the 1920's which was characterized by the Williamson Report and by the establishment of the Board of Education for Librarianship and the Graduate Library School. During the past few significant years, library schools have engaged in a rigorous self-examination, resulting in several basic changes in American library education. It also seemed appropriate to review the objectives, methods, and problems of education for librarianship during this reorientation period.

But these are only reasons for holding the Conference on library education at this particular time, and not for holding one at all. The third reason for the selection of this topic was the central importance of the subject itself. Of all the problems of librarianship, the educational problem is perhaps the key one. If it is poorly handled, no end of undesirable consequences result for the profession at large. If it is effectively solved, the profession benefits day by day. The

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ramifications of library education upon the profession generally can hardly be exaggerated. Its own importance more than justifies its consideration as a Conference topic.

### CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PROGRAM

The Conference was planned to include three distinctive features. It was organized in terms of general problem areas in library education rather than specific programs, such as the new fifth-year Master's degree program. Discussion of general problems, like the preprofessional workers, was considered more relevant, less transitory, and more basic than discussion of particular and individual solutions to the problems of library education. Accordingly, the program was organized in terms of such problem areas—the relationship of the professional school to the university, the relationship of library education to other professional education, the historical development of library education in this country, education for librarianship abroad, preparatory education for librarians, professional education for various fields of librarianship, advanced study and research, training of clerical and subprofessional workers, and administrative problems of library education.

The second feature of the Conference was the selection of library practitioners as well as library educators as major contributors to the program. The reason for this was simple: the problems of library education are not problems for the library educators alone, nor can they be solved by the educators alone. At every point the advice and collaboration of library practitioners are needed. The field, as well as the school, is responsible for the improvement of library education in this country, and practitioners as well as educators are involved in the process. It is a matter of regret that few practitioners attended the Conference, as though they believed that "Education for Librarianship" was a matter for library educators alone. It is hoped that the papers in this volume will receive thoughtful consideration from the field as well as from the schools.

The third feature of the 1948 Conference was the scheduling of discussants for most of the papers. The intention was to represent a variety of additional viewpoints and to provide a basis for critical discussion of the topics. The value of the discussant system is apparent in the contributions which are included in this volume.



clerical at the other, with the subprofessional in between (Lohrer). The Conference was reminded that library education abroad took account of three levels (Carnovsky). Everyone believed that the total system of library education in this country should provide specifically, and differently, for the different levels if they can only be clearly isolated and identified. Here, incidentally, is one place where the library practitioner is especially needed to consult with the educator.

*Generalism and specialism.*—The requirements of general and of special professional education were both noted. "Almost impossible demands of generalism are added to formidable requirements of specialism in defining adequate academic preparation for the profession" (Leigh). Representatives of public and academic libraries seemed to be more satisfied with the general professional education than representatives of school and special libraries (because the library schools have defined their general educational programs largely in terms of the former?). At any rate, there is a strong demand for special programs of education for special kinds of librarianship (Henkle); and at the same time there are warnings that the proliferation of special courses is not necessarily the only or the best answer to this problem (White). It is close to impossible for the schools to provide everyone with just the kind of education that he (or his prospective employer) wants to prescribe. To a large extent this becomes a matter of mediating between the generalism and specialism in the library school curriculum. The development of a core curriculum (for every librarian) to which is added a specialized curriculum (for different sorts of librarians) may lead to a solution (Ersted). So may the recommendation that librarianship be taught as a series of principles guiding action rather than a set of rules for action (Munn, White).

*Preprofessional and postprofessional education.*—There is no disagreement about the preprofessional education of librarians—on the terminological level: everyone is for a "general education" or a "liberal education." But it is a different matter when it comes to particulars. Some will accept a B.A. degree as the equivalent of a general education; some insist upon special examinations. Some want to train the intellect only (Faust); some want to develop the character too (Shores). Some want to prescribe the content of the student's general education (Powell); others are satisfied to take it

## INTRODUCTION

as it comes (Munn). All in all, "everybody thinks (general education) is a good thing, but no one can tell you just what it is in language to which others can give complete agreement" (Van Deusen).

There is a generally favorable attitude toward graduate study and research in librarianship. In almost every field this sort of training was thought to be valuable—for the public library (Munn, Sealock), the academic library (Powell), the research library (Evans). Although more is expected and demanded of the program of graduate study for librarianship as additional schools engage in this form of training, the profession seems to have accepted the importance of this level of education for librarianship. The only dissent has to do with the relative value of an advanced degree in librarianship and an advanced degree in a subject field. On that score opinion is still divided (Powell, Danton), although most observers would perhaps agree that each is appropriate in its own sphere.

*The quality and number of schools.*—At the same time that library schools are gaining in influence within the profession (Lancour), their quality is still being called into question. Whether someone needs to have advanced training to be a good library-school teacher is still a major point of argument (Van Deusen, Danton). But that is only part of the larger question of the quality of the faculties of the schools—their degrees, their teaching ability, their inspirational quality, their intellectual awareness, their research capacity. Although improvement in certain outward manifestations of these qualities has occurred (Howe), there is a body of critical opinion which wants more done (Danton). If the new programs leading to the Master's and Doctor's degrees are to be successful, or even warranted, the library-school faculties must be better prepared for leadership than they now are.

The quality of faculties is to some extent a function of the size of schools. Under ordinary circumstances a tiny student body—and some accredited schools are extremely small (Howe)—cannot support a diverse and highly qualified faculty. Against this background a gradual development of a system of library education with fewer and better schools was suggested by an impartial observer (Leigh). To some extent, this would meet the problem of faculty recruitment (Hostetter).

Finally, this matter of quality is partly a matter of the relation-



ship of the school to the university. In many cases the library school is simply housed on the campus and except for use of the facilities of the university library, its student body and faculty might just as well be located elsewhere. Proper integration into the university calls for another pattern (Colwell, Howe). Not only should students be exchanged with other parts of the university, but the faculty of the school should be accepted on equal terms by other faculties of the university, especially when the schools proceed more fully into graduate programs (Berelson).

*Location and duration of professional education.*—There is disagreement over the location of professional education, on the issue of locating it partly at the undergraduate level or completely at the graduate (or fifth-year) level. The arguments for both sides are presented at several points in these papers—some writers favor the introduction of courses into the (senior) undergraduate years (Howe, Ersted), some oppose it (Powell, Danton), and some don't care (Munn). To a considerable extent this issue is tied up with the definition and prescription of general education.

The duration of library education, as the writers define and observe it, ranges from one academic year (Munn) to a calendar year (Leigh), to two or three more years of graduate study for some librarians (Berelson), to the entire professional life (Van Deusen). The last conception seemed to attract much approval—that library educators and practitioners alike come to consider the period of formal instruction as simply the *introduction* to library training, the start on the long road on which experience and refresher courses would play subsequent educational roles of great importance. In this conception library education, once begun, never really ends.

*Relationship to field.*—The importance of cross-fertilization of field and classroom was mentioned throughout the Conference. Everyone recognized that the practitioners of librarianship had much to teach and in turn to learn from the educators. They can learn from the educators through the latter's surveys, research, and educated products (Berelson). They can teach through participation in such conferences and on the Board of Education for Librarianship, through consultation and collaboration on research projects (Berelson), and perhaps through the direct method of teaching on a library school faculty (Howe, Hostetter).

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### PROPOSALS FOR LIBRARY EDUCATION

There is a legend in this meeting-conscious country that conferences of this sort provide a pleasant social week for the participants, allow for the renewing of acquaintances, present an opportunity for "the exchange of points of view" and "interesting discussions"—but don't really get anything done. This Conference was not designed to get something done, in the literal sense. It was neither an executive nor a legislative body; it had no authority, nor could it commit anyone to anything. It was, in fact, simply a place for talk.

But this does not mean that its talk could not have consequences in action. If the recommendations and proposals of this Conference were followed even halfway by the library schools of this country, important changes would be made. Here, for example, are only some of the proposals contained in these papers:

That the number of library schools be sharply reduced in order to improve the quality of the remaining schools (Leigh)

That an exchange of senior personnel be effected between the schools and the practicing field of librarianship (Howe)

That a definite (and specified) system of training for the subprofessional and clerical workers in libraries be instituted, with all its implications for the profession generally (McDiarmid)

That a research program in librarianship be planned, at least within each advanced school, for the most effective and economical development of knowledge in the field (Berelson)

That library schools jointly develop a series of examinations to test the possession of a general education by the applicant for admission (Faust)

That library schools inaugurate a system of intensive (and specified) preparation for special librarianship (Henkle)

That library schools reorganize their programs to take account of the concept of continuing education throughout the librarian's professional career (Van Deusen)

That the basic specialized professional training of librarians working with youth (children's and young people's librarians in public libraries, school librarians, and teacher-librarians) be the same (Ersted)

Perhaps the value of some of these proposals can be tested during the reorientation of library education over the next years.

## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am indebted to the faculty of the Graduate Library School for their interest and advice at every stage in the development of the program for this Conference.

The Graduate Library School thanks the members of the Conference who served as chairmen of the various sessions: Ethel M. Fair, Director, Library School, New Jersey College for Women; Frances Henne, Associate Dean and Dean of Students, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago; James Kortendick, Director, Department of Library Science, Catholic University of America; Richard Logsdon, Assistant Director in Charge, Technical Services Department, Columbia University Libraries, and a member of the Board of Education for Librarianship; Florinell Morton, Director, Library School, Louisiana State University, and a member of the Board of Education for Librarianship; Francis St. John, Director, Library Services, U.S. Veterans Administration, and Chairman of the Board of Education for Librarianship; Wayne Shirley, Librarian, Pratt Institute Library, and Dean, Library School; and Lewis Stieg, Director, Graduate School of Library Science, University of Southern California.

Finally, I am glad to express my gratitude to Janet Lowrey and Ruth Thomas who ran the Conference with unfailing cooperation, efficiency, and good humor.

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# *General Orientation and Background*

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# The Role of the Professional School in the University

ERNEST CADMAN COLWELL

I ASSUME THAT the subject that was assigned to me was carefully considered and seriously intended. This debars me from speaking about professional schools in American education in general terms, for most of them are *not* in universities. They are, on the contrary, located on college campuses. That educational institution which in America usually rejoices in the name "university" is—at its best—a liberal arts college on whose campus a limited number of professional schools are sedately gathered.

## THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL IN THE COLLEGE

The movement of the professional school to the college campus began more than one hundred years ago, but gained its significant dimensions only in the twentieth century. It is the rule today to find the college surrounded by a group of professional schools, such as a school of law, a school of dentistry, a library school, a school of business, a school of chemical engineering, other assorted engineering schools, and occasionally a theological seminary or school of religion.

The movement of these professional schools to the college campus has—in most cases—resulted in no more than a geographical association. But even geographical propinquity has some vital influence. There can be no doubt that the movement of the professional schools to college grounds resulted in some elevation of professional education. It made impossible the proprietary exploitation of the student—or at any rate reduced its degree. It had some influence upon the educational qualifications of the faculty—at least in formal terms. It undoubtedly had some influence upon the level of preliminary education required by professional schools. All these things are to be carried on the credit side of the ledger for the geographical association of professional schools with colleges.

In many instances, however, the professional schools not only moved onto the college campus, they moved *into* the college. The result has been a further dilution of liberal, or general education, in the American college. In this area the state universities—with their large number of professional schools—have been the egregious sinners. The professional schools have taken over that space in the educational program which previously was filled by an education in the liberal arts and sciences, and have substituted more and more professional and preprofessional courses—until the four-year curriculum that leads to the Bachelor's degree has become a travesty of college education.

In scores of our so-called universities a freshman enters these professional schools directly. In the professional school he studies subjects which bear names similar to those of the subjects required for a general education, but always with either explicit or implicit compromise to the professional interest. If he enters the school of chemical engineering, as a freshman he studies engineering English, engineering mathematics, and engineering history—if, indeed, the past receives any attention at all. But for most of his curriculum he studies engineering. Bestowing a Bachelor's degree upon him at the end of this professional course no more makes him a Bachelor of Arts or Science than painting the mule with vertical black stripes makes him a zebra.

The present strong tide toward a prescribed curriculum of general education or liberal education for all college students—at least for two years—has been motivated as much by the reaction against the extremes of professional school curricula as it has by reaction against the extremes of free election.

All of this, however, as Cicero would say, I must pass over without mentioning. For the subject assigned to me was the professional school in the university, and what I have been talking about is a professional school either at or in a college. But what I have said leads directly to the conclusion that a professional school, if located in a university, must be segregated from the program of liberal education which is the distinctive function of the college. It should not be permitted to nibble away the territory of liberal education in an endless series of commando raids. This is said partly in defense of liberal education, but only partly. Professional education to be

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sound must be built on an adequate liberal education. Once these two are separated, it is not too much to hope that professional education will make such a liberal education a prerequisite for the beginning of its own work.

Having thus summarily related the professional school to the bargain basement of the university, the college, how shall I relate it to the research faculties?

### THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

For me a university is a faculty engaged in study. All else on the university campus is auxiliary and subordinate. It is true that the faculty thus engaged in study also engages in teaching. The primary function of the teaching—as university teaching—is to prepare a younger generation to engage in study similar to that in which the faculty is at present engaged. This concentration upon research and the teaching of research is the distinguishing mark of the university as opposed to the college on the one hand and the professional school on the other.

I have said that the professional schools in America are often located in geographical association with colleges. It is equally true that some professional schools are located in a purely geographical association with a university. The distinction between college and university does not automatically change the type of relationship that is available to the professional school that moves to its campus. The influence of the university upon a professional school with this external relationship is similar to the influence exerted by the college upon its professional neighbor. There is some improvement in the quality of professional instruction; there is some elevation of requirements for admission; there is some further check upon the avaricious instincts of faculty and management. But if the professional school exists solely in the role of neighbor, it makes very little difference whether it be neighbor to a college or neighbor to a university.

However, if the professional school moves *into* the university, it is immediately subjected to an aggressive and powerful influence—the influence of the research activities of the university faculty. This influence is, in its primary stages, a strong solvent that erases much that has been taken for granted in professional curricula and the practices of professional schools. It raises questions about the most



sacred courses in the curriculum, about the general shape of the curriculum, about the working habits of professors. And the initial result of the location of a professional school in a university is almost sure to be the awakening of an inferiority complex in the minds of the professional school's professors. Since the true university, as I have defined it, gives its rewards and its gaudiest badges for distinction in the field of research, the faculty of the professional school is inclined to move from professional instruction to the open frontier of research, so that it may prove its legitimacy on the university campus.

The inferiority complex is not essential to the integration of the professional faculty in the university. But the movement toward research as a habit of mind *is* essential if I am correct in defining a university as a faculty engaged in study.

#### ORGANIZATION OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS IN A UNIVERSITY

Those who are devoted to, or involved deeply in professional education, often view with alarm such statements as those which I have just made. Let them be reassured by the fact that since the objective of professional education is the preparation of the student for the discharge of a particular function in society, the identity of the professional school is not in danger of destruction. The professional interest of the students is in itself almost enough to guarantee that the professional faculty will not be obliterated in the gigantic hopper of university research. In areas where the function of the professional-school graduate is distinct from that of the university faculty itself—as is the case in such fields as business, medicine, social service—it seems to me to be sound educational organization to have a specific faculty group responsible for the curriculum of professional education. In other areas—such as education—the degree of separateness required for the professional faculty is surely slight. This would be true even if the faculties in the departments of English, Zoology, and Economics were not themselves engaged (as they really are) in the education of teachers.

From the point of view of educational laboratory resources, the University of Chicago is particularly fortunate in the variety of its organizational patterns for professional schools. At one extreme, what was once a School of Education is now the Department of

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Education in the Division of the Social Sciences. And the professional interest in the education of teachers—strongly entrenched as it is in the work of this particular department—is spread throughout the University by means of a University Committee on the Preparation of Teachers. The Faculty of the Department of Education yields to the pressures that affect social scientists in general, and either singly or in cooperation with members of other departments in that division and other divisions, it pursues research, and pushes toward the new frontiers of learning.

A new type of professional school—university relationship has been developed on this campus in the Division of the Biological Sciences. Here the School of Medicine has become a part of the faculty of a scientific division, and clinical departments and nonclinical departments sit down together to formulate policy, establish curricula, and pursue research. The effect upon the faculty of this professional school has been tremendous. Its devotion to research and the education of research workers in medical science has won distinction far and wide. Members of the clinical departments engage in research projects with scientists from the nonclinical departments in Biology, as also with scientists from the Division of the Physical Sciences. They are in a very real sense a professional school *in* the University.

The Graduate Library School represents a third type of relationship. It does not enjoy the splendid isolation of the traditional professional school; nor is it an integral part of another faculty as is the case with Education and Medicine. Yet from its origin on this campus, it has developed a deep interest in research and study which has led the members of its faculty to associate with humanists and social scientists in the pursuit of further knowledge. It has shaped a curriculum that drives the students from the special courses of this particular faculty to those which are offered by other faculties of the University. In all of this the Graduate Library School is a professional school in the University.

## PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

So much repetitious discussion of the nature of a professional school in the university implies that there is some value in such a relationship. The value lies in the distinctive function which a school so organized can perform in our society. It has as its primary

and distinctive obligation not the preparation of doctors to practice medicine, nor of teachers to teach, but rather those functions which are university functions: the advancement of knowledge in a particular profession; the education of students to carry these advances still further in the next generation; and, finally, the criticism of its own profession in terms of standards of performance.

These are the tasks of a university professional school. Whatever else it may do, if it fails to discharge all three of these duties, it is not worthy of the name. The word "standards" is much blown upon today. The relativism that dominates much thinking in educational circles makes it hard to establish standards or to elevate them. We are reluctant to discuss them.

But the habits of our thinking and acting in the professions show that standards there are exceedingly important. To begin with, we who work in the professions regard this fact itself as grounds for pride. We and the public generally assume that just being a doctor or a minister or a lawyer or a librarian is in itself an exceedingly important thing for society.

There is no such feeling about occupation in nonprofessional areas. There the job—the particular job—must be important; here the nature of the work itself is important. In a bank one must be at least a seventeenth vice-president to do important work. In the ministry of the church, the pastor of a country circuit must grapple with questions of eternal significance. The young man who enters a profession does not have to wait for advancement to engage in activities of the highest importance to society.

Society's recognition of the importance of professional work is shown by the honorable titles which it delights to lavish upon the members of the professions. The lawyer in this country may not be a King's Counsel and wear a silken gown, but he will have a hard time avoiding the title of "Judge" or "Colonel." The surgeon will be called "Doctor" everywhere he goes. And the minister will be embarrassed by the awkward use of the title "Reverend" and the generous use of the title "Doctor."

The enthusiasm of the public for the professions often bestows degrees upon us which we have not earned. H. L. Mencken asserted that it was part of the canon law of the Southern Baptist Church that any Baptist congregation could bestow the degree of Doctor of

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Divinity upon its pastor. When I was an instructor at Oxford, Georgia, all the students called me "Professor," a rank to which I had not attained. When I was a Bachelor of Philosophy teaching at Emory University, all my students called me "Doctor," a degree which I had not earned.

It is not only in the lavish awarding of titles that society indicates the importance of the work of the professions, but also by that sincerest form of flattery—imitation. Undertakers talk about raising the standards for their "profession." Last winter I saw on the streets of an American city signs which advertised a College of Cosmetology, whose graduates, no doubt, will lift the practice of the fine art of make-up to "professional" levels. Any university president could tell you—if he dared to speak frankly—of half a dozen proposals for the establishment of brand-new professional schools on his campus in a very short period of time.

This makes it the more important that we who educate for the professions recognize clearly the nature of the service that society expects from professional men. This service, it is expected, will be rendered without a constant concern for material advancement.

A great industrial leader, speaking at a dinner some weeks ago, insisted that the motivation of American life was the desire to possess *things*; that management's frank recognition of this motivation on the part of labor would prevent industrial strife; that the politician's recognition of this desire in the heart of every citizen would preserve democracy and the American way of life.

But this is not the motivation of professional people. Indeed, a profession may be defined accurately as an activity in which the particular task to be done is chosen for some other reason than material profit.

We do not want our souls saved by people whose primary concern is a special bonus for doing the job. We do not want the decision to operate or not to operate in the case of serious illness to be decided in terms of the financial interest of the surgeon. We do not want our protection in the law courts to be determined by our capacity to pay. Nor do we want librarians to ban books on an order list because that will help them to hold a job or to secure a better one. Our protection against these risks is the individual doctor's, lawyer's, or librarian's loyalty to the standards of his pro-

fession. This is the meaning of professional ethics. Concern about titles has nothing to do with it. Rules against poaching belong to the trades—not to the professions. The motivation of the professions is something other than the desire for the largest possible automobile and the biggest possible house.

If this is true, success in a profession depends upon the quality of service one renders and cannot be indicated to the public by the length of a vacation in Florida in the winter, by the possession of the latest model Cadillac, by membership in expensive clubs, or by residence in a palatial house.

We do not lift the level of a particular profession by insisting upon the use of titles, nor by claiming larger fees or higher salaries. We lift the level of the profession by clearly recognizing the nature of professional life and by insisting upon performance within the profession that conforms to the nature of the profession.

We do not lift the quality of education for a particular profession by increasing the quantity of that education. This week I cut from the newspaper a story about schools of pharmacy, released by the national association's officers. It urged "a six-year college course in pharmacy to make druggists the academic equals of physicians and dentists." The apparent aim, the article said, would be to move pharmacists up a notch in the "professional" class and increase their earning power.

The younger professions seem bent on wasting time and money on this detour. The road to higher education does not run in this direction. It runs toward self-criticism of the most searching sort. This requires all the assistance of the modern university. And above all, the professional school must be willing to work out standards in terms of the final purposes of the profession in society.

### VALUE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION TO THE UNIVERSITY

All that I have said so far argues the advantages and disadvantages of university relationship from the point of view of the professional school. What value does the professional school bring to the university?

In my personal opinion, it is of great value to the university. The besetting sin of a faculty devoted to study is triviality. The research worker always runs the risk of doing piddling, insignificant

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work. The professional school, however, cannot avoid a concern with matters of great importance to contemporary society. A robust professional faculty is insurance for the university against triviality. This is not the least important aspect of the work of a professional school in the university.

# Educational Problems in Other Professions

RALPH W. TYLER

SUGGESTIONS GLEANED from the experience of other professions as they have recognized educational problems and sought to solve them, may contribute to the improvement of the professional education of librarians. It has not been possible for me to make a thorough canvass of every profession, but I have had some opportunity to learn of the developments in several, including law, medicine, theology, engineering, and nursing, and I am particularly familiar with the activities of the teaching profession. The purpose of this paper is not simply to recite changes in the educational programs of the several professions. Such a presentation would not provide sufficient explanation to judge the significance of the changes. To furnish a background of interpretation, it is necessary to define a profession, to indicate some of the critical problems of professional education, and then to outline some current attacks upon these problems among the various professions. This is the plan of this paper.

## NATURE OF THE PROFESSIONS

Planning the education for a profession requires an understanding of the nature of a profession. The traditional respect and high social status awarded the early professions have led many occupations to call themselves professions. But they do not have a clear notion of the characteristics which differentiate a profession from other occupations. From the standpoint of the education required, there are two chief characteristics of a true profession. The first of these is the existence of a recognized code of ethics. This ethical code commits the members of the profession to certain social values above the selfish ones of income, power, and prestige. In the case of medicine, for example, its code of ethics dedicates the doctor to the

saving of lives and the protection of the health of the patient above all material and personal considerations. In the case of the clergy, the accepted ethical code dedicates the clergyman to the service of God and his parishioners above all selfish considerations. The ethical code for the teaching profession dedicates the teacher above all to seek the enlightenment of his students and to a sincere, honest search for truth, whatever may be its implications.

A professional code of ethics not only professes social values that are above selfish ones, but it expects the individual member seriously to dedicate himself to these higher values. Furthermore, a profession establishes some form of group discipline in support of these values. A doctor who violates the ethical code of medicine receives the disapproval of fellow doctors and is subject to discipline by the state for malpractice. A lawyer who violates the code of ethics of the law may be disbarred by his fellows from further practice of the law. One of the indications that an occupation is becoming a profession is a concerted movement among members of the occupation to establish and maintain group discipline to uphold the ethical values to which the occupation gives lip service. Insofar as the field of librarianship is a profession, it has ethical values higher than the selfish interests of individual librarians, it expects the librarian to dedicate himself to these values, and the professional group as a whole enforces discipline to see that these values are not disregarded. As an outsider looking at the profession, I would suppose that the librarian is primarily dedicated to the enlightenment of his community, to the dissemination of truth, and to the development of an intelligent citizenry. In maintaining these values he would, if necessary, attack those special interests that might seek to keep the public uninformed, to deny free access to thought in some significant area of life, to restrict the circulation of certain material, and otherwise to prevent the development of intelligent understanding in all fields of knowledge. The development and maintenance of such a code of ethics is one major criterion of a profession.

The second distinguishing feature of a profession is the basing of its techniques of operation upon principles rather than rule-of-thumb procedures or simple routine skills. For an occupation to be a profession it should involve complex tasks which are performed by artistic application of major principles and concepts rather than by



routine operations or skills. This is an important differentiating feature. A skilled trade, obviously, involves some fairly complex tasks, but the members of the trade are able to perform these tasks through acquiring certain routine skills and through following certain specified rules. Many of the problems encountered by a member of a profession are in a certain sense unique. To solve such a problem he must draw upon certain basic principles.

However, the application of these principles necessitates an analysis of the particular problem to identify the unique aspects which will require adaptation of the principles. This adaptation is an artistic task, that is, it involves individual judgment and imagination as well as skill. A skilled trade does not demand this type of intellectual operation. In the early days, surgery was not really a profession but was a skilled trade. Certain skills, such as those used in bonesetting, were transmitted from one generation of surgeons to another, and the surgeon learned largely as an apprentice how to carry on his trade. With the development of the basic medical sciences like anatomy and physiology, it became possible to gain a more fundamental understanding of what was involved in bone structure and in tissue development, so that a surgeon with adequate scientific background was able to adapt his particular procedures to the specific conditions surrounding a given case. He then solved the problem in each case in terms of basic principles rather than simply following rule-of-thumb procedures.

In similar fashion, when the lawyer operates as a professional worker, each case is analyzed and interpreted in terms of basic legal principles, so that the unique solution to the particular case is developed artistically by the lawyer in terms of these principles. Whenever a member of any profession meets his day-by-day tasks in terms of routine performance, for *him* the occupation is no longer a profession.

Not only does a profession utilize basic principles rather than rule-of-thumb procedures, but as the profession becomes more mature it recognizes that the principles used in the profession must be viewed in an increasingly larger context. Thus, the science needed by the profession must be continually extended to more basic content rather than restricted only to the obvious applied science. For example, medicine has increasingly come to recognize the interrela-

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tionship of nutrition, physiology, anatomy, biochemistry, and other more fundamental sciences which give a much broader basis for understanding a particular medical condition of a given patient. Correspondingly, there is an increasing tendency for the legal profession to recognize that legal principles must be viewed in the larger context of economics, politics, sociology, education, and the like, in order that the legal decisions will not be isolated from the broader context in which clients live and carry on their work. Teachers are increasingly realizing that to educate youth it is necessary to have a broader understanding of youth themselves and of the contemporary world in which young people are growing up, so that what is being taught can be meaningful to the students and will make a difference in the way in which they live and carry on their duties as world citizens. In general it can be said that as a profession becomes increasingly mature, it not only develops members who carry on their work through principles rather than rule-of-thumb procedures, but it also encourages members to gain an understanding of these principles in a much larger context than that afforded by the usual confines of the occupation.

I have emphasized these two major characteristics of a profession, namely, the development of a code of ethics and the use of techniques that are based on principles, because they are to my mind the most significant differentia of professions from other occupations, and also because they most clearly indicate the fundamental tasks of professional education. They need to be kept in mind as we examine some of the problems encountered in educating for the several professions.

### PROBLEMS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Of the common problems currently encountered in professional education, eight are particularly significant. The first of these is *the confusion of professional and nonprofessional tasks*, both within the profession and, more critically, on the part of those responsible for educating members of the profession. In nursing, for example, there has been considerable confusion because of the failure to differentiate such nonprofessional tasks as bedmaking and the carrying of trays from such professional tasks as planning a program of nursing care and teaching a patient regarding his proper regimen when he leaves the hospital. Using the distinction made earlier,

that a professional task is a complex one to be solved by basic principles rather than by routine skills or rule-of-thumb procedures, we find in most professions a good many tasks that are not professional in nature and yet may loom so large in the thinking of those responsible for the education of members of the profession that they occupy all too large a part of the training program. I have seen programs for the education of school administrators which have devoted major attention to questions of how to make out the form of a budget, how to clean a building, and how to set up pupil accounting forms, while neglecting such major tasks as providing leadership to the staff in instructional development and selecting and encouraging the growth of teaching personnel. This confusion of professional and nonprofessional tasks has tended to clutter up the curricula of professional education, taking undue time, giving too much weight to nonprofessional activities, and failing to develop the basic principles by which the really important and complex tasks of a profession can be attacked.

A second common problem is *the selection of students* to receive professional education. In some professions, as in medicine, the selection of only a small fraction of those who apply makes it possible to set very high standards. In other professions, as in teaching, few institutions attempt to make discriminating selections. In many cases where selective admissions are operating, the criteria are not such as to obtain the most promising candidates for the profession. Patterns of courses taken previously in high school or college are often used as selective criteria, but much evidence has been obtained to show that there is little relation between the patterns of courses a student has previously taken and his success in professional training. The varied nature of a profession implies a broadly educated practitioner, yet the common requirement of a certain number of hours of work in each of the major fields of study is not adequate evidence of a broad general education. The problem of selecting students is a serious one in most programs of professional education.

A third common problem in educating for the professions is *the neglect or omission of content* which really illuminates the ethics of the profession and content which provides principles of operation. Instead, much of the content of professional curricula in several fields has been selected for its prestige value, or because it provides

details that serve to differentiate the members of the occupation from those of some other occupation. In the field of teaching, for example, a great deal of curriculum content can only be described as "pedagese," that is, technical terms used only by teachers and thus helping to differentiate teaching from other occupations. However, this content provides neither real illumination of the ethical factors in teaching nor any principles by which effective teaching may be carried on. Often the content of courses in methods of teaching includes specific rule-of-thumb procedures, unnecessary technical terms, and descriptions of petty devices that give to naïve people the impression that there is great depth and significance to such courses. But to the more sophisticated it is clear that the content largely consists of unimportant minutiae and that important content is being neglected in such a procedure.

In medical education there used to be a great deal of content which involved the naming of minute parts of the body and the acquiring of a technical vocabulary that did not give the student any greater insight into medicine as a profession but was used largely for prestige purposes by the medical student, since he had a jargon which would set him off from persons in other occupations. This tendency to confuse superficial content of a technical sort with important content is still a major problem in professional education.

A fourth common problem in several professions is to distinguish *ethical values* that are broadly social from a pseudoethical code that, in reality, dedicates the individual to the selfish interests of the group rather than to mankind generally. In some programs for the education of doctors, there has been a tendency to develop a code of ethics in which the doctor dedicates himself to the medical profession and to the interests of doctors rather than to the improvement of the health of mankind. In some programs for the education of lawyers, there has been a tendency for the ethics to identify the individual lawyer with the selfish interests of lawyers generally rather than to see that justice is had by all mankind. In the education of many teachers there has been developed an ethical belief that dedicates the teacher to the maintenance of the interests of teachers generally rather than to the welfare of children who are being taught. A profession is not a union. Professional ethics must focus upon higher social values than dedication to the selfish interests of the

professional group. Yet to attain this high aim is one of the serious problems of professional education.

A fifth common problem in educating for the professions is to teach *the fundamental principles* upon which professional tasks are based so that they are understood in a broad context. The common tendency is to develop the principles in the very narrow context of the profession without seeing broader amplifications. Thus, a lawyer may understand principles of legal interpretation and have very little knowledge of the economic implications of particular legal interpretations. A minister may learn something of the principles of rhetoric in the development of sermons without understanding more basic principles of communication by which to determine how to reach effectively the various segments of the parish. School administrators are often taught certain principles with regard to the analysis of financial needs of the school and sources of revenue, but without a broad enough context in public finance and basic economics to understand the effect of particular financial policies of Boards of Education upon the total community tax situation and upon the economic requirements of other units of local, state, and national governments. In general, the problem of developing basic professional principles in a large enough context has been a serious one.

A sixth common problem in educating for the professions is *the inadequate connection between theory and practice*. In some professional courses specific procedures or techniques are taught without bringing in general or basic concepts. This fails to build generalizations with which students can meet new situations in the profession. In other courses, general principles are taught without indicating their application in concrete situations and without connecting them in any way with specific procedures. This often results in the principles being so abstract as to be meaningless to the students. It also means that there is very little transfer of what is taught in the professional course to actual procedure in the professional tasks. In general, there has been neglect of the relation between theory and practice in an effective program of professional education. Theory ought to give the rationale by which professional tasks are attacked. Practice should provide both the proving ground for theory and the concrete situations from which theory can be abstracted with meaning. Actually, however, in most programs of professional education

there is considerable separation between theory and practice, so that the potential reinforcement that each provides for the other has not been realized.

A seventh problem is the failure in most programs of professional education to carry the learning of students to a *high level of effective performance, depth of understanding, and self-directed further learning*. It is proper to expect a good program of professional education to carry the student to a point where he may be expected to perform at a high level, where he has a real understanding of problems and uses basic principles in their solution, and where his knowledge of the field and his interests are great enough to lead to continued study and growth after his formal professional preparation has ended. This is rarely true in any of the professions. Many doctors who have been away from medical school for ten years are quite out-of-date and make no effort to keep up with developments in the profession. Many lawyers, graduates of ten years before, are similarly carrying on their work at a mediocre level without any depth of understanding of the field and without any evidence of self-directed further study. This, too, is a serious problem of professional education.

The final problem to be mentioned is *confusion as to the nature of advanced professional education or graduate work*. This confusion is of several sorts. In some institutions the confusion grows out of a conflict between the conception of graduate work in a professional field as the education of a scholar, that is, a student of professional problems, and the conception of graduate work as the training of a more competent professional worker, or one able to carry on more complex professional tasks. Within each of these two main views, that of educating the scholar and that of training a more skillful practitioner, there are further types of confusion. Among those who hold that graduate work for members of a profession is primarily education of the scholar, there are those who believe that the proper fields of scholarship are the basic sciences that underlie the principles used in the profession and others who believe that the proper areas of scholarship for advanced professional work are the applied fields directly involved in the profession. Thus, in the field of teaching there are those who view graduate work as primarily education to develop scholars in such basic fields as psychology, philosophy, sociology, political theory, and the like, while there are others who believe

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that graduate work in education should develop scholars in such applied fields as curriculum, educational administration, educational sociology, and the like. Furthermore, there are conflicts among those who view graduate work for a profession as the development of more skillful practitioners. This conflict arises from the question as to whether the more skillful practitioner is one who has been given broader and more basic training, or the one who has been given narrower and more highly specialized training. This varied confusion about the nature of graduate work in the professional field is common to most professions.

### DEVELOPMENTS IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

With these eight common problems of professional education in mind, we may now examine some current developments in educating for the professions that provide an attack on one or more of these problems.

One current procedure of interest is that of *analyzing the occupation to identify the professional as against the nonprofessional tasks* involved in the occupation. Thus, in engineering, a recent analysis of the field has identified a large number of semiprofessional or subprofessional tasks which do not require truly professional training to carry them on effectively. As a result of this analysis, many types of technologists have been recognized, persons who can be trained within two years or so after high school graduation to carry on many of the tasks involved in the engineering field. Estimates published by the U.S. Office of Education indicate that ten to fifty times the number of technologists are needed as the number of professional engineers. The state of New York has set up several technical institutes to provide training for technologists at this subprofessional level. This identification of subprofessional tasks and the separation of them from professional activities save a great deal of society's effort, because it is possible to devote less time to the training of the subprofessional worker and at the same time to afford a better educational program for the professional workers in the field. Similar analyses are being made in the field of medicine to distinguish medical technicians from doctors. Such an analysis is proposed for the field of nursing. The identification of truly professional tasks and the separation of the nonprofessional tasks make it possible to pro-

vide a higher quality of professional education because of the elimination of the confusion mentioned earlier between educating for professional tasks, and the development of the more routine skills and rule-of-thumb operations at the nonprofessional level.

A second significant development in professional education is the practice in several institutions of *selecting students in terms of demonstrated characteristics and abilities* rather than in terms of specific courses previously taken in high school or college. Many law schools used to require that students applying for admission should have taken certain specified courses in foreign language, in history, and in certain other fields. Engineering schools usually prescribed for admission certain high school courses. Similar requirements were common in most fields. More recent investigations have shown that evidence of certain types of competence on the part of prospective students provides a far better basis for getting able students into the profession than selection on the basis of particular courses taken in high school or college. For most of the professions, for example, it has been shown that the following criteria are useful predictors of success in the professional training program: (1) a medium or high score on a scholastic aptitude test like the American Council Psychological Test or the College Entrance Board Scholastic Aptitude Test; (2) a medium or high score on a reading test that requires careful interpretation of fairly complex material; (3) a medium or high score on a test of writing skills; (4) a medium or high score on a test of ability to handle quantitative operations involving arithmetic; and (5) evidence that the student has carried some subject for at least two years previously and has done good work in this subject. This last criterion provides evidence of motivation and good study habits on the part of the prospective student. In addition to these evidences of intellectual skills and abilities, carefully planned interviews or projective tests to identify personality characteristics and character traits appropriate to the needs of the particular profession are also valuable. This trend to select students in terms of evidences of intellectual competencies and significant personality characteristics is important in providing a better supply of students who are really able and interested to carry on professional activities. It supplies students better qualified to deal with both the ethics and the basic principles of the profession.

A third recent development in programs of professional education



is the requirement, as a prerequisite or concurrently with the professional education, of a well-rounded program of general education. This aims at providing the student with a view of man, society, human needs, and their social expression as well as with training in intellectual skills of analysis and interpretation. The provision of a well-rounded general education is in contrast to the earlier tendency to require simply a miscellaneous collection of courses or a certain number of courses in each of several fields. The earlier requirement provided no consistent training in intellectual skills. Nor did it give the student a broad background of understanding about the nature of the world and of man, or knowledge about the values and understandings necessary to view his responsibilities both as a citizen and as a member of a profession. In several professions, this tendency to require a broad and functioning general education is providing a quality of personnel quite in contrast to the highly specialized technician who knew only his own field but had no sense of social responsibility nor any adequate vision of the relation of his field to the total operations of world society. This development, together with the one to be mentioned next, helps to solve the problems involved in the lack of a broad basis for professional ethics and the lack of broad context in which to understand the problems and principles of the profession.

A fourth development has been *the construction of courses within the professional education program that show the relation of the profession to the broad goals and activities of society*. For example, in the education of teachers, administrators, and other school functionaries, an increasing number of institutions are utilizing a course which might be called *The School and the Social Order*, attempting to give the prospective school practitioner a better understanding of the social functions of the school, the responsibility of the school to the society, and of the society to the school. This is proving a significant move in getting a more professional practitioner in schools and colleges. In similar fashion, a number of engineering schools are offering a course in *The Engineer and Society*, which has the same purpose, namely, to help the prospective engineer to see more clearly the relation of engineering to the broad goals and activities of contemporary society. The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago (and I suppose this is developing in other institutions) has a course on *The Library and the Social Order* which aims at similar goals.

These courses attempt not only to give an historical background of the relation between the profession and the society, but they also seek to show how the profession actually functions, both as servant to society and as leader and molder of social policy. These courses, too, emphasize professional ethics in a broad social context. This helps to develop a member of the profession who has an ethical system broader than the selfish interests of his own professional group.

A fifth significant development is the practice in several institutions of *analyzing curriculum content in terms of its actual functioning as generalizations or concepts to guide intelligent behavior in the profession*. This involves not only the selection of useful material but also the elimination of much content, such as material that has been included only for its prestige value or because it provides a technical jargon to identify the members of the profession, and material that has been traditionally included, although the content itself no longer is used by members of the profession. With the elimination of nonessential material there is room for content selected on the basis of its value in actually illuminating the goals of the profession, the basic purposes of the major activities carried on by the profession, the techniques used in attacking the problems of the profession, the principles that can be used in guiding professional operations, etc. Activity analyses of professional tasks may serve as one convenient basis for the selection of curriculum content. However, it must be understood that the purpose is not to select *rules* for carrying on these activities, but rather to identify what kinds of basic materials are needed to give meaning to the objectives of these activities, and to explain the concepts and principles needed to deal with these activities on an intelligent professional basis. This has meant, in teaching for example, that many of the highly specific methods courses have disappeared from the curriculum; in place of them is material on child development and the psychology of learning. Such material provides the basic generalizations for understanding problems of learning, and thus gives the really professional teacher a background from which he can attack problems of teaching and learning. We are all familiar with the fact that medicine has long been a profession which has drawn its content quite largely from the basic sciences, and has included less and less of the specific rules which might guide an old-fashioned doctor. Content of this sort

provides much more effective material for a curriculum aimed at the education of members of a profession.

Along with this development of more basic content in the professional field, is a sixth development: *the increasing use of courses in other fields* that have important implications for the profession. Thus, medicine draws more heavily upon biochemistry, chemistry, physiology, and anatomy. Teaching is drawing more heavily upon psychology, sociology, biology, and philosophy. Educational administration is drawing more heavily upon economics, public finance, political science, and social psychology. In the early stages of professional education, as a given vocation was just struggling into the professional field, there was a tendency to try to set up all courses for the professional training of workers under the control of the professional department. This resulted finally in such extremes as engineering English, agricultural English, engineering mathematics, educational sociology, physiology for medicine, etc. The exclusive use of courses which are narrowly professional limits the understanding of the persons in training. They fail to gain the full implications of the basic concepts and principles which the basic and related fields offer. Furthermore, the contact of students in one professional field, like prospective doctors, with other students who are taking basic and related courses, like physiology or chemistry, is a valuable contact in extending the thinking and understanding of both groups. Moreover, the professor who teaches an applied course like educational sociology tends to cut himself off from the main stream of thought in the field of sociology and so, over the years, he decreases his usefulness in applying concepts developed in the field of sociology that might have further significance for the broader education of teachers. Leaders in professional education are increasingly recognizing the values that come from having their students take courses that are broadly oriented in other fields, but still have relevant implications for the professional field.

When professional students take basic or related courses, one problem must be recognized and dealt with: that is, the difficulty for the student to see the implications of the basic or related field for his own profession. One method of attacking this problem is to have seminars in the professional field running concurrently with the service courses in the fundamental or related fields. In these

seminars, professors who know the professional field are able to raise questions from students and help them to see more clearly the implications of the concepts and principles that they are getting in the fundamental or related fields. To use courses in the basic or related fields effectively, it is necessary not only that these courses broaden the student, but also that he become able to work out the implications of this broader knowledge for his own professional work.

A seventh development which is taking place in the field of professional education is that of *building a closer and more appropriate connection between theory and practice*, between the art and the science of the profession. Many institutions are not only teaching general principles, but also helping students apply these principles to particular cases so that it is possible for them to use the principles in practice as they deal with particulars. Effective professional education requires this close connection between theory and practice. Without theory, practice becomes chaotic, merely a collection of isolated, individual cases. Theory gives meaning and unity to what would otherwise be specific and isolated cases. On the other hand, without practice, theory becomes mere speculation. The realities of practice provide a check upon pure speculation, a test of the adequacy of theory. Practice also suggests the problems which must be dealt with by any comprehensive theory. Hence, these efforts to connect theory and practice more closely are important contributions to professional education.

One illustration of this development is the increasing use of the case method in law and in business administration. The case method involves the student in the study of a concrete and particular case. But to understand this case and deal with it effectively, he must bring to bear the theory, the concepts, the principles, that are basic to the issues raised by the case. The case method has revolutionized legal education and is doing much to make business administration more than rule-of-thumb procedures.

In the field of public administration and teaching, efforts to connect theory and practice have resulted in extensive use of internships accompanied by seminar work. The internship provides concrete experiences which are interpreted in terms of basic theory in the accompanying seminars. This shuttling back and forth between general and specific aspects of a profession helps to build an increasingly

adequate context of concepts and principles by which a member of the profession can understand the operations to be performed in terms of the values to be attained. An adequate theory helps him to relate particular activities in an individual case to the larger social issues, to see the connection between the activities of the daily operations of the profession and the welfare of society generally. However, for these types of educational programs to be effective, more than superficial experience and explanation must be provided. The student needs many opportunities to deal with situations on the basis of a careful analysis of them, to identify the values and principles involved, and through practice to develop artistry in devising means to deal with the situation so as to preserve these values. This is the aim of efforts to knit theory and practice more closely together.

An eighth development in professional education is the working out of *definite plans for continued education* after the member of the profession has completed preservice training and has been inducted into the initial activities of his work. Fifty years ago medical schools, law schools, and theological seminaries felt that their work had been done when their graduates had been admitted to initial professional activity. As the years went by, it became increasingly clear that many members of the profession did not grow after they began their work, and that in some cases the older practitioner was much less competent than those currently beginning in the profession. Few doctors, lawyers, or ministers made any effort to continue their education after graduation. Now there is a marked tendency for professional schools to develop programs of continuation education, in some cases bringing the work of the school to the practitioner in the field, in other cases setting up short courses, conferences, or long-term seminars for practitioners to take on the campus. The present conference is one such occasion. This is a promising forward step, and provides a direct attack upon the problem of carrying the student to a high level of performance.

A ninth development is just getting under way in most professions, that of *defining more clearly two functions of advanced education* in the profession and developing two corresponding programs of graduate work for the professional field. The prestige of the Ph.D. degree has caused many professions to set up advanced graduate work under the general criteria applicable to Ph.D. programs. In other institu-

tions, graduate work has been looked upon simply as more of the same kind of professional training as that given before graduation. More recently, there has been recognition that *two* kinds of graduate work are needed for professions: one for educating the scholar of the profession, that is, the student who will contribute fundamental knowledge and methodology for attacking critical problems of the profession; and the other for educating a high-level practitioner who has a broader and deeper understanding of the field than it is possible to provide during his initial education for the profession.

As these two types of graduate work are distinguished, one leading to the Ph.D. degree and the other to a professional degree, it becomes possible to plan each of them more clearly in terms of its basic purpose. The Ph.D. program in a professional field, since it aims to produce scholars needed by the profession, focuses upon the concepts, methodology, and skills required to attack fundamental problems of the profession involving both basic and applied sciences. The program for the advanced professional degree does not emphasize more highly specific content, but rather the broader and deeper generalizations and theory that will enable the practitioner to operate at a higher level. Hence, advanced professional training involves not only graduate work in the applied field, but also more use of basic subjects drawn from other fields and more attention given to identifying the implications of basic knowledge for the strategy and tactics of professional operations.

#### CONCLUSION

In the time available, it has been possible to sketch only briefly nine current developments which seem to me illustrative of significant attacks upon critical problems of professional education. Not by adding more and more specific material to the curriculum, not by raising the qualifications of its members in purely numerical terms, but by improving the selection of students and the quality of preparation and by developing appropriate continuation education and advanced graduate work can professional education be made adequate.

The field of librarianship has a unique opportunity to contribute to the improvement of professional education. Its major purpose is among the most important of any profession, that of public enlightenment. It works both with ideas and with people. It is not only a

social science, but it also includes elements of the humanities and of the natural sciences. Hence, adequate education for the profession requires both breadth and depth.

There has never been a time when public enlightenment was more greatly needed. There has never been a time when there was greater need and greater opportunity for the education of professional librarians who will render the kind of professional service and professional leadership that contributes markedly to the advancement of our civilization. The experience of other professions in trying to make their education more effective may provide leads, but you yourselves must forge the superior program of professional education for librarianship.

## *Discussion*

HELEN R. WRIGHT

WHEN A PERSON is asked to discuss a paper, the easiest and most exciting thing to do is to disagree with it violently from start to finish. When I was asked to discuss this paper, I had hoped that I could take the easy way out. I am sorry to say, however, that I do not find myself in disagreement. In fact, I think that Mr. Tyler's paper has made a masterly synthesis of problems common to professional education, and that it gives food for thought to any group concerned with this problem.

### COURSES IN OTHER DEPARTMENTS

I did find two points, however, with which I want not so much to quarrel as to utter a word of caution. The first point relates to the use of courses in other disciplines conducted by departments concerned with those disciplines, that is, courses not under control of the professional school. I am in hearty accord with Mr. Tyler's dislike of English for Engineers or Economics for Social Workers. I agree that they deprive the student of the opportunity for the broadening experience that comes from being in groups with those following other vocational interests. I agree, too, that there is danger

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that the professor teaching in the specialized school will be cut off from trends of thought in the other disciplines. But, and I emphasize the "but," I think that in using such courses there are difficulties of which Mr. Tyler has not spoken. These occur when the department giving the basic courses in the other disciplines is concerned primarily or exclusively with educating specialists in its own discipline. It has happened that a basic course in economics gives students no understanding of the role of the corporation or of the banking system in modern economic society. Such a course does not meet the needs of the professional school because it fails to give the basic content that is needed, at least in our profession. It has also happened that in order to get the essentials in American government, students must take a course in federal government, a course in state government, a course in local government, and a course in public administration. However much we revise our curriculum, omitting the trivia and working toward essentials, I think we all find ourselves under the pressure of time. Students do not have the required time to get the details in these other fields that are needed by the specialist in those fields.

I do not suggest that the way out is for the professional school to develop the special courses. I do suggest, however, that it has a responsibility to review the content of the courses in the other disciplines, and to approach the department to determine whether it may not be possible to get a course that is more suitable for the needs of the professional school. This calls for two-way planning.

## COURSES ON SOCIAL VALUES

The second point about which I have a word of caution relates to the use of courses like *The School and the Social Order* or *The Library and the Social Order*, that is, courses meant to orient the student to the social values of his profession and to place it in a broader social setting. I have no quarrel with such courses. They may be very valuable, but I think they also may be very sterile. They will be sterile if every other course in the curriculum is oriented particularly to the narrow needs of the specialization. For example, a course in the Law School on *The Social Functions of Law* would have little meaning if the instructors in every one of the technical courses—rules of evidence, contract, etc.—thought that the aim of



that course was to enable students to master the rules merely to win cases. I assume that this would be a rare occurrence. Perhaps it does not happen often enough in a good professional school to make it worth more than passing mention. What more frequently happens, however, and what may happen in even the best professional schools is that the instructor, although convinced of the relationship of the profession to the world as a whole, has not mastered the art of teaching his technical field so that the student sees it in relation to the whole, and especially to the values that the profession is designed to serve. In fact, I think the art of teaching in this fashion is one that very few have really mastered. And yet until this vision of the profession as serving an outside goal, of the profession as at once servant of society and leader and guide, inspires and permeates all of our teaching, we shall fail to give our students the vision that Mr. Tyler is talking about.

#### EDUCATIONAL CONTRIBUTION OF SOCIAL WORK: PRACTICE WORK

In Mr. Tyler's discussion of the attempts that were being made to meet some of these problems, I notice that he made no reference to anything from the field of education for social work. Perhaps that was because he knew that I was to follow him on this program. In thinking about his paper, I concluded that perhaps education for social work had most to contribute to the problem of the relation of theory and practice. From its inception, education for social work has been convinced of the necessity of practice. In the years that it has been struggling with the problem of the relation of theory to practice, it has learned a number of lessons the hard way—by stumbling and fumbling, and by trial and error. It is some of those lessons that I want to share with you.

I think the first lesson we have learned is that if the practice work is to be truly educational, it must be as carefully thought out and planned as any classroom course. This means that its objectives must be determined and the kinds of learning experience available within the practice must be identified and selected to give the student a real learning experience. All the principles of education, such as orderly progression from the simple to the more complex, repetition for reinforcement, etc., come into play in the practice work as well as in the classroom course. They are somewhat more

difficult to achieve in practice than in the classroom for—at least in our field—things are not always what they seem. The assignment that is given to the student with the idea that it is going to be a rather simple one and make demands on him that he is competent to deal with, proves to be a much more complex one and may make demands on him for which he is not yet ready. Yet we must be prepared to deal with this situation and help the student to get from it some valuable experience. Although a practice can never be as controlled and orderly as the classroom, we have learned that it can be far better controlled if we have a plan that we are trying to follow rather than if we make all our assignments on the theory that *any* practice will be a learning experience for the eager student.

The second thing we have learned about the practice is the necessity for its close interrelationship with the classroom course. This means that the instructors in the classroom and the people who are to guide the students in practice must be able to sit down together and think about this whole practice experience. From the classroom teachers who have responsibility for the whole curriculum should come the guidance as to objectives to be achieved in the practice. From them should come also the knowledge of the psychology of learning and the educational principles which should guide in developing the practice. But they cannot select the assignments in the particular practice which will give this experience without the help of the people who are to guide the practice. They must impart to these people some of their knowledge of educational principles and objectives. They must get from them the content that is available in the particular practice. In brief, the planning of the practice instruction calls for the joint thinking of practitioners and educators.

Furthermore, as the student is practicing not to learn a job but to learn professional skills, the practitioner under whose guidance he is learning needs help from the educator in methods of giving this guidance in accordance with sound educational principles; and the classroom faculty must know what the student is achieving and how the learning is progressing. This could be developed in detail and the various devices used could be described. The point, however, is that if the tie-up is to be real, both classroom faculty and practitioners must be prepared to spend time together, not just at odd moments and on the fly, but carefully planned-for time.

This is not the only demand on the time of the person who guides the student in practice. In fact, it is perhaps the lesser of the demands. The person who has charge of the practice work must have time to teach the student. Time for this is very important; if practice is really to provide a learning experience, if it is really to be the application of theory to practice, the student must not be left to flounder or to learn by trial and error. He must know not only that he has done a task well or ill, but why. We cannot say, "Never mind the whys and wherefores." All this may be obvious, but for us in the early days it was not so obvious. We were sometimes guilty of assigning a student to a busy practitioner without making sure that this practitioner was relieved of some of his other duties. The result was that students got the odds and ends of the practitioner's time. I have heard people from other fields talking about practice work as though it could be achieved by the same method.

Another thing that we have learned, which is probably implied by what I have already said, is that a good practitioner is not necessarily a good person to guide the student in practice. The student is practicing to get an educational experience, and he must be under the guidance of a person who can analyze what and why and develop in the student the same abilities. In other words, the practitioner must be more than a master of his trade or art; he must be a person who has teaching ability.

The last thing that we have learned of which I wish to speak is the importance of having practice and theory go on concurrently. We have not found it desirable to have the student learn the principles and the theory in the classroom and then go out and try to apply them. We have found that too large a dosage of theory without practice may make Jack a bright boy and Jill a bright girl but will not make them the professional persons we are trying to develop. Nor have we found that the division of work between classroom and practice is as neat and simple as the division between theory and application. In practice as well as in the classroom, the student learns to develop principles. Every time he makes a conscious attempt to deal with a situation by a consciously selected method and finds that it works, he should start the formulation of a tentative hypothesis to be tested by other experience and by the knowledge gained from reading. This hypothesis may eventually lead to the formulation of a

principle. Principles learned this way are likely to have the richest meaning for the student. Similarly, classroom instruction is not entirely devoted to principles, their formulation, and their meaning, divorced from application. On the contrary, in our teaching the student is constantly exposed to concrete situations as described by others. He is encouraged to formulate hypotheses about them and to apply principles already learned in deciding what to do about the situation. The difference is—and it is a very real one—that in these classroom situations he is not himself involved. He is freer to think without the responsibility that comes with action and without the emotional involvement that inevitably comes from being a part of the situation himself.

I can summarize very briefly what I consider the main lessons that we have learned about practice as part of the educational program of the student. They are (1) that the practice work situation has to be planned for and thought through carefully; (2) that time is necessary on the part of the person who guides the student in practice, so much time that he must inevitably be relieved of some of his other activities; (3) that the good practitioner is not necessarily a good teacher in practice any more than in the classroom; and (4) that learning progresses better if learning of theory and practice in application of theory go hand in hand rather than at two separate times.

Finally, I wish to express my thanks for the opportunity of discussing this paper. It has more food for thought than can be digested in a single bite. In fact, I think it has so much meaning for all of us that I find myself rather resentful that the paper was given to librarians only. There are many things that I would like to know more about in the experiments that Mr. Tyler has mentioned by way of illustration. That makes me wonder whether it might not be possible sometime to have in this University a conference not on "Education for Librarianship" or "Education for Social Work," but a conference on professional education to which we might all come with our several interests and our particular contributions, in which we might share our doubts and our fears, our hopes and our aspirations.

# Historical Development of Education for Librarianship in the United States

LOUIS R. WILSON

EDUCATION FOR librarianship has maintained a prominent place in the thought of American librarians from the first meeting of the American Library Association in 1876. It took concrete form in 1883 when Melvil Dewey outlined his proposal for a school of library economy at Columbia. A committee was appointed to consider the subject of education for librarianship in general as well as the specific proposal made by Dewey.

From that date to the present, the American Library Association has not been without a committee on library training. At first it was a special committee. In 1903 it became a standing committee and was required to submit a report annually. In 1923, upon the recommendation of this committee, a Temporary Library Training Board was appointed. The Temporary Training Board was succeeded in 1924 by the Board of Education for Librarianship, which was charged with the responsibility of considering all problems incident to the professional training of the men and women who were to administer the libraries of the nation. That Board still operates today on the major concerns of library education.

During 1947-48 the subject of "Education for Librarianship" has been considered at conferences held on the Pacific Coast, in the South, in the Midwest, and in the East. Now the Graduate Library School renews consideration of this topic. My assignment in this discussion is to comment upon what I consider the most important movements, events, and influences that have characterized the development of this field. I have selected ten of these factors for consideration here.

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### THE FIRST SCHOOL AT COLUMBIA

The first important step in this development was the establishment of a School of Library Economy at Columbia in 1887. Melvil Dewey presented the proposal for such a school at the meeting of the American Library Association in 1883, and spent four years in developing the plan for it and in overcoming the opposition of the faculty and trustees of Columbia to it.

Two significant decisions were involved in the establishment of this first school. American librarians, after full and careful consideration, decided in favor of educating librarians through a professional school in preference to apprenticeship in libraries; and they approved a thoroughly practical curriculum embodying best practice, with little consideration of theoretical studies.

Both of these decisions have had important consequences, the effects of which are still evident. As a result of the first decision, the foundation for the present system of library schools was firmly established, as contrasted with the English system of apprenticeship which continued unbroken until 1919 and is still preferred by many English librarians. Even though the curriculum was severely practical and limited, it was developed systematically, and afforded the student an opportunity of mastering in a minimum of time the various subjects embraced in the curriculum and of seeing them through an over-all and unified perspective impossible through apprenticeship in a single library. To this decision, more than to any other one thing, may be attributed America's acknowledged leadership in the field of modern library procedures.

This Conference, like the conferences at Berkeley, Urbana, Atlanta, Chicago, and New York during the past year, is concerned with the second decision. It is confronted with the problem of developing curricula not conceived of in the framework of the scheme adopted by Dewey, and largely followed until the late 1920's. It is attempting to formulate, outside that framework, programs of study that will be truly professional and will be nicely articulated in their entire structure, from undergraduate and preprofessional studies through the strictly professional and graduate levels.

### THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN LIBRARY SCHOOLS

The second important step was the establishment in 1915 of the

Association of American Library Schools. This organization, following the example of similar professional schools in other fields, was set up with the expectation of shaping educational policy in librarianship. It deepened the professional consciousness of those engaged in the administration of the schools and it established certain standards which other schools were expected to meet and to maintain in order to become members. Its effectiveness, however, was severely limited, and continues to be limited, although its membership now includes all schools accredited by the American Library Association, some of whose faculties are demonstrating marked ability in the development of significant programs of study.

The importance of the organization derives from its potentialities rather than its past accomplishments. What it may accomplish in the future will depend upon whether it will bring its collective thinking to bear seriously upon its problems, work out appropriate solutions, and adopt new procedures which will insure a sound program of professional training. Failure to do this in the past may be largely attributed to lack of funds to insure meetings of the Association and its committees apart from the meetings of the American Library Association; absorption of the interest of the directors (who were also directors of libraries) in the programs of the American Library Association; lack of familiarity of the faculties, particularly in the early period, with the procedures of other faculties and of other professional educational associations in dealing with the problems of formulating and enforcing standards; and, since 1926, the automatic admission of all schools accredited by the Board of Education for Librarianship to membership in the Association without the stimulating experience of re-examining standards and applying them in the accreditation of new schools and of assuming responsibility for constantly exploring the field. The Association has also been a closed organization and has lacked the infiltration of points of view which stem from contacts with other bodies and individuals. For these reasons, the Association has been largely unable to exercise influence in the development of professional objectives and standards with anything like the comparable results secured by other professional associations such as those in the fields of medicine, law, engineering, commerce, and social work. Perhaps the future will witness a strengthening of its role in library education.

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### NEXT STEPS IN THE 1920's

Education for librarianship underwent extensive professional reorganization and experienced a new degree of financial support in the 1920's. Several movements contributed to this end. Three stand out as particularly important and constitute the third, fourth, and fifth events to which attention will now be directed.

The first grew out of a paper read by C. C. Williamson at the Asbury Park meeting of the American Library Association in 1919 on "Some Present-Day Aspects of Library Training." In this paper Williamson proposed a better-organized system of library training agencies under the supervision of a library training board which would adopt standards and regulate the certification of librarians. This was the central idea which he carried into his studies of all types of library training for the Carnegie Corporation from 1919 to 1921, and elaborated in September, 1923, in his famous report on "Training for Library Service."<sup>1</sup>

The second grew out of two related actions taken by the American Library Association in 1920 and 1923 before the Williamson Report was published. In fact, they largely prepared the way for the discussion and acceptance of his report. They were the appointment in 1920 of a National Board of Certification for Librarians and the discussion of its studies and reports during the next two years; and the adoption of a recommendation of the Committee on Library Training in April 1923 that a Temporary Board on Library Training be appointed "to investigate the field of library training, to formulate tentative standards for all forms of library training agencies, to devise a plan for accrediting such agencies, and to report to the Council."

The third movement grew out of the decision made in the first half of the 1920's by the Carnegie Corporation of New York to project a comprehensive program of library development, including education for librarianship, which assumed the form of what came to be known as the "Ten-Year Program of Library Service," and which resulted in the expenditure of approximately five million dollars, much of which was for the support of various aspects of education for librarianship.

<sup>1</sup> Carnegie Corporation of New York, *Training for Library Service* (New York: Updike, 1923).



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These three movements were so far reaching in their influence that they merit separate consideration.

### THE WILLIAMSON REPORT

The Williamson Report was the first to make itself felt. Williamson spent considerable time visiting the existing library schools and carefully studying all aspects of education for librarianship. Trained in the field of political science, and experienced as a municipal reference librarian and director of the information service of the Rockefeller Foundation, he was able to view the schools objectively and critically. His analysis of the status of library school faculties, budgets, curricula, and students revealed a situation wholly unflattering. His prescription for the improvement of the condition of the schools included recommendations that they become integral parts of universities; that their staffs contain a high percentage of full-time instructors chosen for distinction in ability and training; that the first year of study be general and basic; that there be a sharp differentiation between professional and clerical studies, with the latter largely eliminated; that specialization be reserved for the second and third years; that financial support be substantially increased; and that a national examining board be created to formulate requirements concerning library training in general and to pass upon the credentials of library school graduates.

Here was a bold, penetrating analysis that defined the professional field, described the serious limitations within it, pointed out the possibilities of improvement through advanced study and investigation, and, in a very real sense, charted the possible course for a sound development within the field. The report was widely discussed, and, as a result in part of the preceding studies and discussions by the American Library Association of certification and training, many of the recommendations were carried out later at Columbia, under Dr. Williamson's direction, and at many other library schools.

### THE BOARD OF EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

The importance of the work of the Temporary Library Training Board and its successor, the Board of Education for Librarianship, from 1923 to 1933, is probably less generally recognized and understood by the present generation of librarians than that of the Board

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during the past fifteen years. In this recent period, due to reduced personnel and more limited funds, the Board has concerned itself largely with routine; only occasionally has it undertaken special studies or large-scale operations like those carried on during its first decade. Among the accomplishments of the Board were: the visiting of each school by several of its members, with an over-all discussion of the school's administrative organization, staff, financial support, and curriculum; the preparation of minimum standards for different types of schools and their accreditation; the publication of textbooks prepared under its direction for the use of library school students and librarians generally; the encouragement of the establishment of schools in certain areas and the discouragement of others that seemed ill-advised; the allocation of funds made available by the Carnegie Corporation for the support of existing schools; the recommendation of endowment for new schools; the establishment of the American Library School in Paris; the provision of fellowships for librarians and prospective librarians; and, in 1933, the changing of its standards from a quantitative to a qualitative basis.

In this work the Board brought the schools face to face with the meeting of standards imposed by an outside agency. It discussed conditions affecting the schools with administrative officers of the universities with which the schools were connected. It recommended budgets to be provided by institutions contemplating the establishment of schools. It conferred with the Association of American Universities concerning degrees to be awarded upon the completion of the various curricula. And in 1933 it changed its standards from a quantitative to a qualitative basis in order to give greater flexibility to the schools in setting up special objectives and engaging more generally in experimental programs.

Naturally this kind of activity evoked criticism and opposition. The Second Activities Committee in 1930 reported that the work of the Board had elicited more criticism, mostly adverse, than any other organization within the Association. The Board responded spiritedly. It stated that the inspection and the accreditation or nonaccreditation of schools was a difficult task to perform; and that measuring the effectiveness of the schools and classifying them accordingly naturally led to differences of opinion and, in some instances, to pointed resentment. In general, the profession rallied to the Board's support,

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some of the critics reversing themselves to the extent of suggesting that greater financial support be given the Board in order that it might carry on its work more effectively.

This kind of activity involved the Board in certain mistakes. At the beginning, it lacked some of the familiarity that present library-school faculties have with admission requirements; university organization and procedures; undergraduate, graduate, and professional curricula; and the attitude of graduate faculties concerning professional studies and degrees. A case in point is to be noted in the Board's dealing with the Association of American Universities concerning the degree to be awarded upon the completion of the fifth year, devoted to professional study. The Board accepted the ruling of the Association that a certificate or a second Bachelor's degree be awarded instead of a professional or Master's degree. Acceptance of this ruling in 1926 has been responsible for much of the confusion concerning the proper content of the preprofessional, professional, and graduate-professional curriculum and for salary discrimination against holders of second Bachelor's degrees, since it was not clear what the degree stood for. Nevertheless, the Board set up a program to the effectiveness of which the Williamson Report and the grants of the Carnegie Corporation greatly contributed. In fact, it largely provided the framework within which the schools have carried on for the past quarter century.

### THE TEN-YEAR PROGRAM OF LIBRARY SERVICE OF THE CARNEGIE CORPORATION

The Ten-Year Program of the Carnegie Corporation helped make possible the implementation of the recommendations of Williamson and of the Board of Education for Librarianship. The Corporation provided funds for the Williamson study and it financed in large measure the program of the Board of Education for Librarianship during its most active period. It aided in merging the library schools of the New York State and the New York Public libraries at Columbia in 1925, and contributed \$25,000 annually to the support of that school from 1925 to 1935. During the same period it contributed a similar amount annually to other then-established schools upon recommendations made by the Board, and at the end of the ten-year period it distributed the million-dollar principal among them in the

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form of endowments. It likewise provided for the establishment of the library school for Negroes at Hampton Institute and the School of Library Science at the University of North Carolina. And in 1926, upon the recommendation of the Board and the Chicago Library Club, it made available funds for the establishment and endowment of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago. In 1929, after the re-establishment of the School of Library Service at Columbia and the provision for advanced study there, at Chicago, and at the Universities of California, Illinois, and Michigan, it established a number of fellowships from which in the following decade 93 librarians benefited.

### THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL

The establishment of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago may be considered as the sixth event in the historical sequence. In 1925 the Carnegie Corporation issued its famous Office Memo called the "Ten-Year Program in Library Service." This memorandum followed the report of Williamson, the report of the Temporary Library Training Board, the appointment of the Board of Education for Librarianship, and the publication of Larned's *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge* in 1924. This program involved the expenditure of \$5,000,000. One of the items included in it was, as President Keppel phrased it, "an allotment of one million dollars to make possible a graduate library school of a new type which could occupy for the librarian's profession a position analogous to that of the Harvard Law School or the Johns Hopkins Medical School."

Wheeler, in his *Progress and Problems in Education for Librarianship*, says: "The founding of the Graduate Library School . . . may well turn out to be of greater influence on library training and on librarianship than the publishing of the Williamson Report in 1923 or the establishment of the Board of Education for Librarianship in 1924." Miss Howe, in her *Two Decades of Education for Librarianship*, remarks that the School fully met the criterion that it was to be "an integral part of a university which meets the standards for graduate study laid down by the Association of American Universities."

Whether the statements made in the Office Memo by President Keppel or these statements by Mr. Wheeler or Miss Howe have been

realized, it is probably too soon to say. Nevertheless, its establishment stands out as one of the most significant developments in the history of education for librarianship in America and may be commented on at some length, since the conclusion of the twentieth year of its operation is being celebrated at this meeting.

This significance is to be seen in several facts. The first was the composition of its initial faculty. Contrary to the expectation of the profession, it was drawn in large measure from disciplines other than that of librarianship. Its head was drawn from the fields of higher and rural education. His principal contact with libraries had come through a survey of college and university libraries. A second member was an expert educational investigator, with a special penchant for investigation of the sociological and psychological aspects of reading. A third was a historian with a brilliant record in the field of medieval scholarship, one of whose major works deals with medieval libraries. A fourth, with a special interest in Arabic manuscripts, had grown up in the University of Michigan library, had taken his Doctor's degree in a theological seminary, and had come to the School via service in the reorganization of the Vatican Library and the study of American college libraries for the Carnegie Corporation. Of the three other members of the staff prior to 1932, one had come from library school and extensive graduate training, another had long and varied library experience, and another held a Doctor's degree from a theological seminary and had served as an expert on rare books in the Newberry Library. When I came to the headship of the School in 1932, only one member of the then existing staff had come up through the regular channels of library schools and work in a public library. The "irregularity" of the group was seemingly so glaring to the strictly library-minded members of the profession that it was not until the Board of Education had changed from quantitative to qualitative standards in 1933 that I dared submit the application of the School to it for inspection and accreditation!

The value inherent in this unusual situation was fourfold. Here was a staff, several of whose members were familiar with the curricula and procedures of professional schools in other fields; it was untrammelled by the crystallized form of the prevailing curriculum of education for librarianship; it was acquainted with the fields of bibliography, history, education, psychology, and sociology upon

which librarianship could and must draw for its enrichment; and it was extensively trained in scientific methods of graduate study and research. The effect produced upon the library profession was similar to that of shock which is sometimes essential in bringing back to reality the sufferer from amnesia and other mental disorders. In this instance, the shock was desirable to jar the profession out of its prolonged devotion to the practical techniques set up by Dewey and at no time thereafter wholly satisfactorily departed from.

A second value was the separation of the head of the School from the administration of the university library. A program of advanced study, investigation, and publication had to be set up. An effective staff had to be organized, and leadership and guidance had to be provided for graduate students in a new and undeveloped field. This called for the full time, energy, and thought of the head, and for freedom from the innumerable decisions which the administrator of a large university library must make daily. Freedom from such interruptions was essential in order that the dean could devote such time as was necessary to the consideration of the "changing needs of librarianship" and to the formulation of a program suitable to meet them.

These were initial values. Others have accrued throughout the years. At the head of the latter may be placed the development of a critical, scientific attitude in the School's students. They have been taught to challenge unproven assumptions, to devise experimental techniques for the solution of unsolved problems, and to reach conclusions only after thorough examination and testing.

The School has also developed an extended series of important library publications. Its series, *Studies in Library Science*, now contains more than thirty volumes, many of which have been notable in the advancement of various phases of librarianship. *The Library Quarterly* has regularly published the results of extensive investigations and its reviews have critically appraised the important literature of librarianship and related subjects.

Through its teaching and publications the School has likewise contributed to the development of a philosophy of librarianship, the lack of which had long been decried. Munthe, in writing of Butler's *An Introduction to Library Science*, published in 1933,<sup>2</sup> said: "Dr.

<sup>2</sup> University of Chicago Press.

Butler employs a universally valid process of philosophical reasoning in an attempt to show it is impossible to understand a social institution like the library without scientific investigation of the social, psychological, and historical problems that attach themselves to it. . . . Butler's little book is the first attempt at a scientific synthesis of library science in its various aspects, and a step on the road toward a philosophy of librarianship. Some day it may rank among the classics of the library profession."

This was a first step in the formulation of a philosophy of librarianship. J. H. Wellard, in his *Book Selection, Its Principles and Practice*<sup>3</sup> and *The Public Library Comes of Age*,<sup>4</sup> has taken a second step. He set the library in its relation to the fields of history, literature, bibliography, psychology, and sociology. He gathered up the results of many of the studies of the School and worked them into a sustained synthesis that may well be studied by all students who would understand the bases upon which the public library movement in America and England rests.

The School's publications have contributed another factor of importance to the acceptance of librarianship as a scholarly professional discipline. They have clarified the field of librarianship and have made it understandable to scholars in other fields. Munthe, in writing of Joeckel's *The Government of the American Public Library*,<sup>5</sup> said: "One might be tempted to say this treatise alone is sufficient documentary evidence in justifying the existence of the School." *A Metropolitan Library in Action*, by Joeckel and Carnovsky,<sup>6</sup> and *The Chicago Public Library, Origins and Background*, by Spencer,<sup>7</sup> evoked the interest and commendation of the historian and political scientist as well as of the student of American social institutions. Illustrations might be drawn of the impact of other publications and studies upon other fields, particularly of the publications growing out of previous conferences like this one, but these are sufficient for the purpose of showing how librarianship has been enriched, and how other disciplines have profited from this activity of the School.

Skepticism as to the value of the Doctorate in librarianship has

<sup>3</sup> London: Grafton, 1937.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, 1940.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, 1940.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, 1943.

<sup>6</sup> University of Chicago Press, 1935.

also been reduced, certainly in university and research libraries if not in public libraries, owing to the leadership and accomplishments of graduates of the School. Wheeler bears testimony to this fact; and Munn, who in his *Conditions and Trends in Education for Librarianship* (1936)<sup>8</sup> maintained that library schools were not training for leadership and that comparatively few librarians with advanced training were required in cities like Pittsburgh, somewhat modified this statement in his American Library Association presidential address, "Fact versus Folklore," in 1940.<sup>9</sup> There he stressed the point that if libraries were to respond effectively to changing needs, they must have objective studies of every kind, particularly concerning the reading interests and abilities of their patrons. Through its graduates who hold Ph.D. degrees, the School has demonstrated that extended training in advanced studies and research not only tends to insure such competence, but that it does so more quickly than prolonged experience.

These influences may be thought of as having been tangential to education for librarianship. Three that have affected the subject directly will now be pointed out.

The first is the contribution the School has made to the upbuilding of the staffs of other schools. At the very outset the School held conferences for the training of teachers in library schools. In the two decades since its establishment, it has steadily supplied directors and staff members to the faculties of other schools. The number of holders of advanced degrees in faculties of other schools has steadily increased since 1929, and several schools which began offering work leading to the Master's degree and the Doctorate in librarianship in 1948 or have strengthened their work at the graduate level, will be staffed in considerable measure from the School's graduates with higher degrees.

The second direct contribution has been the example the School has set in formulating a professional curriculum that proceeds logically through the various stages of general, preprofessional, professional, and graduate-professional education. It first undertook this step in 1941-42. That it was able to do this was due in part to the organization of the School as an integral part of the University of Chicago.

<sup>8</sup> Carnegie Corporation of New York.

<sup>9</sup> In *A.L.A. Bulletin*, 34 (1940) 38-84, 402.



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Without reference to a general graduate school, it has been able to work out a program in keeping with the spirit and structure of the University that breaks away from the excessive techniques of the Dewey tradition and that prescribes the nature of the preprofessional and professional fields. It has done this not in the old framework, but in a new framework in close cooperation with other departments and schools. This development holds promise of the highest order.

The third direct contribution has been the steady provision during the past two decades of fellowships, scholarships, grants-in-aid, and research assistantships for graduate students in librarianship, from which a hundred or more librarians have benefited. Many of the beneficiaries have been employed in surveys and studies conducted by the School, have published the results of their investigations in the *Library Quarterly* and the series of *Studies in Library Science*, and have gained experience in attacking library problems from which the profession generally has profited.

This activity has by no means been limited to the School. On the contrary, the Carnegie Corporation provided a series of generous fellowships from 1929 to 1942 in which 93 librarians participated, and library schools in general have offered scholarships, fellowships, and assistantships to a growing number of students throughout the nation. This activity has emphasized, however, the fundamental importance of such assistance for graduate study and the enrichment of library service.

### THE CONTRIBUTION OF PRACTICING LIBRARIANS

The influence exerted by practicing librarians constitutes the seventh aspect of the development of education for librarianship. This has been in the main of a conservative nature. However, there have been notable exceptions. Perhaps the two most notable have been the approval by the leaders of the American Library Association in 1883 of a library school as preferable to apprenticeship for the training of librarians, and the constructive work of the Temporary Library Training Board and the Board of Education for Librarianship from 1923 through 1933.

Against these significant developments is the tendency for many practicing librarians to insist that graduates of library schools joining their staffs should be able to render the kind of service normally

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expected of apprentices in their own library systems. Placement of advanced students at higher than beginning levels, particularly by public libraries, has been fairly difficult; and opportunities provided by libraries for leaves of absence with pay for advanced study and for assignments to tasks involving extensive specialization, experimentation, and research, have been comparatively few. Part-time positions have been more generously provided, particularly by the New York Public Library and the libraries of universities whose library schools have formerly awarded the Master's degree.

### THE ROLE OF CERTIFICATION AGENCIES

Education for librarianship has likewise felt the impact of accrediting agencies within and outside the field of librarianship. The adverse effect of the ruling of the Association of American Universities upon the degree awarded for the completion of the one-year professional program has already been noted. The role of graduate faculties in determining the conditions under which graduate programs of the schools are to be carried out has also been suggested. The part played by school accrediting agencies and state certification boards has also been extremely important.

The point does not require elaboration. The example in the states served by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools will suffice to show the extent of this influence. Before the Southern Association adopted its standards for the training of high school librarians in 1927, there were only two library schools in the area. The establishment of the standards stimulated the organization of schools at William and Mary, the University of North Carolina, George Peabody College, and Louisiana State University; and of departments of library science for the training of school librarians in a score of additional institutions. State aid for public libraries has likewise made it possible for state library agencies to set up definite professional requirements to be met by county and regional librarians. All these requirements have had to be considered by the schools and have been reflected in the programs of study offered by them.

### STUDIES OF THE PAST DECADE

The ninth influence to be considered in the development of education for librarianship has been that of related studies which have

proliferated during the past decade. I shall not undertake to single these out by name. Some of them were related to the fiftieth anniversaries of the schools at Columbia and Illinois. Others have been undertaken for the Carnegie Corporation. Still others have been developed by members of library school staffs. All have dealt with various phases of the subject. They have analyzed conditions, pointed out limitations, and prescribed remedies. Fortunately they have been projected against the background of from fifteen to twenty-five years of experience of library schools as parts of American universities. They reflect the influences described in the foregoing sections of this paper, and provide in large measure the foundation of the new curricula recently put into effect. This new development will be looked back to in the future as marking a significant advance in education for librarianship.

## NEW CURRICULA

Finally, passing consideration must be given to the new curricula that are emerging from these studies. They represent something more than individual opinions. They are the outgrowth of studies which have preceded them and they embrace programs of action which will markedly affect the future of education for librarianship.

The most obvious change in the new programs is the change in the degree to be awarded at the conclusion of what has usually been considered the fifth year of undergraduate and professional study. The second Bachelor's degree is to be dropped by a number of schools and the A.M. or the M.S. is to be awarded.

The change in the degree, however, is not the most fundamental change. It is only superficial. The most significant change is to be found in the nature of the curricula leading to the new Master's degree. Requirements for this degree have been restated and represent an attempt at placing preprofessional, professional, and graduate-professional studies in a logical order and in keeping with the spirit of professional and graduate study. The pressures exerted by undergraduate colleges and graduate schools have been relaxed to such an extent that a more realistic approach to the professional requirements of librarianship has been made possible.

The content of the curricula also exhibits extensive change. A glance at the courses offered at Chicago, Illinois, and Columbia, for

example, reveals a sharp break from the titles of courses contained in the minimum standards adopted by the American Library Association upon the recommendation of the Board of Education in 1926. A core curriculum introduced at the undergraduate level replaces much of the former curriculum. New courses such as The Library and Society, Books and Libraries in the Cultural Process, Communication and Libraries, Readers and Reading Interests, The Resources of Libraries, The History of Scholarship, and Methods of Investigation are combined with other professional courses and seminars as well as graduate courses from other disciplines. In two new instances they are continued beyond the fifth-year level with advanced courses and seminars leading to the Doctorate. Closer integration with other schools and departments has been effected, with consequent enrichment throughout the entire professional curriculum. The total result is the provision of a program of professional and intellectual content that should go far in giving the future librarian the background, competence, and scholarly understandings that will better fit him for the exacting demands of American librarianship.

It is upon this kind of foundation that education for librarianship is being placed today. After sixty years, the framework established by Dewey and only partly modified by Williamson and the Board of Education for Librarianship has, in considerable measure, given place to the framework fashioned by the needs of modern librarianship. From these changes, generally long overdue, librarianship stands to profit greatly.

## *Discussion*

HAROLD LANCOUR

AS I READ over and pondered Dr. Wilson's fine paper and as I have been reading here and there in the quite substantial body of literature that has accumulated in the field of library education, a few points seem to me to be worthy of further attention. As they are somewhat individual units, the order in which they are

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presented has no meaning and there is not much direct relationship between them.

### FROM PRACTICE TO THEORY

The first point concerns itself with the definite shift that has taken place in the last half century from an empirical orientation of library education to a theoretical orientation.

You no doubt remember the comment of Melvil Dewey on the proposed course of study for the first American Library School in which he said:

The course will include little of the antiquarian or historical except where necessary to illustrate or enforce modern methods. Its aim is entirely practical, to give the best obtainable advice with specific suggestions on each of the hundreds of questions that rise from the time a library is decided to be desirable till it is in perfect working order, including its administration.

Now this could be, as someone has aptly put it, no more than an enlightened apprenticeship. Indeed, it was not intended to be more than that.

Almost immediately, however, the intellectual impoverishment of such a program was apparent. Suggestions for the broadening and deepening of the curriculum offered in the library school were made in many of the reports and debates which appear in the literature of the 1890's. In the report on the Albany school delivered at the New Hampshire Conference in September 1890, E. C. Richardson said:

The aim of the School is to teach library economy. It makes little pretention to covering the field of library science. This is to be regretted and it is hoped that the broadening will be extended.

Yet fifty-six years later it was still necessary for Dr. Danton to state:

There can be little doubt on the part of those who are familiar with even the best of present-day curricula, that the latter make too little distinction between those aspects of library work which are professional and those which are not. The Schools teach skills which are not needed or should not be needed by the professional workers.

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Nevertheless, the locus had been shifting all during those decades until now in the new programs we find that they can be described as placing their emphasis on the theoretical aspects of the science of librarianship.

### CHANGING ROLE OF THE SCHOOLS

The second salient point has to do with the changing role played by the library school within the profession. For the most part, it is apparent in the willingness by library school faculties to assume the responsibilities of intellectual leadership. We can see, as we read the early literature, that the pioneer library school was, to all intents and purposes, the servant of the profession. The job of the library school was to train workers. Librarians in the field knew what they wanted and the school was to provide it. While many librarians of that day felt they could do the job better themselves in a training class or an apprentice assignment within their own libraries, they were for the most part willing to transfer such training activities to schools established for that purpose. It was not to be expected, however, that the faculties of the library schools would make many suggestions as to what should be included in the course.

This, it seems to me, has changed. In Wheeler's 1946 report, he says:

... The aim of the school should be to review and greatly strengthen the present fabric of librarianship—and its activities—and to see what may then be sensibly added to it. The schools will then have a definite basis for their thinking, their curriculum, and the philosophy of librarianship that seems so elusive.

William H. Jesse in a paper before the Southeastern Library Association sees in that statement the newer concept made manifest. Mr. Jesse feels that what Mr. Wheeler is really saying is that the whole question (of curriculum) should be left largely to the library schools, but that the library schools will want to go much deeper into the problem of librarianship than a mere hearing and tabulation of employer needs. He then goes on to say:

In other words, ironically enough, the library schools are being advised by certain of us not to take our advice at all but to go their own way, teaching what they, as experts, think should be taught in order to

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strengthen the present fabric of librarianship, being careful of course not to become arbitrary in their desirably academic aloofness.

The product of such training should indeed, strengthen librarianship, and the profession will gain by this purer approach to its problem.

No one connected with education for librarianship, in the active sense, will deny that his first responsibility is to provide new members of the profession, trained and educated for the task they are to perform. Educators are becoming less and less willing, however, that the description of that trained person should be compiled by the employers of the moment. A large part of the educator's function in this latter day must be anticipatory, to decide what developments and directions the profession is likely to take in the future—perhaps in some cases to decide and determine what course it *should* take in the future and then to prepare people who will bring it to fruition. Students are to be trained not only for their first jobs after leaving library school, but for the job they will be holding five or ten years later. The profession of librarianship has grown too great in stature, too complex in its organization, too rich in its intellectual content, to let preparation for it be in the hands of those who are concerned only with immediate needs.

### EMERGENCE OF THE EDUCATOR

And this leads me to my third point, namely, that we have seen through the years the emergence of the professional library educator, into whose hands can be entrusted the specialized task of preparing librarians for the future.

The day when teaching library school students is the part-time duty of busy and already overburdened administrators is past. The job of the educator is as big and as time-consuming as any comparable administrative position. If it is true that the administrator actually never leaves his work, how equally true that is for the teacher. Library education must be in the hands of those who are continually and constantly applying the fullest measure of their talents and energies to their particular segment of our professional work. Courses of intellectual depth, lectures that are worked and reworked into books, research programs that lead to significant contributions to our literature will never be the creation of part-time instructors. Thus,

it is good that we can see the gradual composition of a group of men and women with extensive academic training, with sufficient professional experience to insure an awareness of field problems, with demonstrated competence as teachers in the fullest sense of the term, and with the vision and zeal of the best within our professional corpus.

You will note that I have not stressed a need for extensive professional experience. Yet we have heard it frequently said that library school faculties are too remote from the field. In the earlier days of library schools, when it was felt that practical information was all that needed to be imparted to the neophyte, this may have been true.

As the center of our orientation has moved from the purely practical to the theoretical and intellectual, the need for such experience, it seems to me, becomes less and less marked. In point of fact, a case could be made that for certain teachers or for certain areas of our discipline, too much practical experience would be a hindrance rather than an aid. Our profession has now reached the point where it needs the theoretician as well as the practitioner—theoreticians who have not been repressed by the defeatism of the field worker. The best ideas do not come from him who knows already that they will not work. I would far rather that the student be stimulated by concepts and ideas which may at the moment be quite impractical than to have him lose the ideas which may be commonplace ten years hence.

No, the great contributions to library education that have come during the past quarter century have not been the result of fortuitous circumstance. They have come because the problems of library education have been attacked by those competent to do so and because library education has been subjected to the critical appraisal of library educators and not librarians.

That this group is feeling the kinship engendered by their common task is becoming increasingly evident. Dr. Wilson noted the first organization of library educators, the American Association of Library Schools. The first issue of its *News Sheet* has just appeared. More recently, the Division of Library Education within the American Library Association has been founded to provide a professional meeting ground for a larger membership. Proposals have been made calling for the creation of a *Yearbook of Library Education* as well as a quarterly *Journal of Library Education*. While these are not the



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activities of moribund institutions, it should be noted that so far they give only the promise of successful professional effort. We must regretfully agree with Dr. Wilson that as yet little has been accomplished by any of them.

### RELATIONSHIP TO EDUCATION

For my fourth point I venture to suggest that there has been, through the years, a growing awareness that the discipline to which librarianship is most closely allied is the field of education. I refer to the conscious recognition that all libraries are educational institutions and, by analogy, that all librarians are educators. This awareness has been revealed, though never fully or adequately exploited, in the corollary courses suggested to library school students and in the fact that librarians and library school instructors have often been recruited from the teaching profession. It has been no accident that so many of our schools have been, and are, attached to teacher-training institutions.

### DEVELOPMENT OF PLACEMENT ACTIVITY

Finally, and this is my fifth point, no one can look at the historical development of library education in this country without being impressed by the attention that has been paid to placement activity. It is, I think, true that none of the other professional schools has developed such extensive services in as formal a fashion.

It is also heartening to see our growing maturity reflected in the changing philosophy (if it may be so dignified) which has set the pattern of this placement work. It might be characterized as having passed through three successive steps. The earliest, and most regrettable, was the maternalistic period. Time was when the student was told at graduation: "Now don't worry, take this job, work hard, don't say a word, and we will watch over you. When you are ready we will see that you are moved on." There are still, to our detriment, many of our fellow workers who develop a real guilt complex at the lustful thought that they might like to look for a new job. This was followed by the *laissez faire* period, caused by the depression. The student was told: "We would like to help you, but there really isn't much that we can do. Take anything you can get and be glad for it."

In recent years there are some signs that we have entered what

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might be called the democratic period. Honest efforts are being made by placement officers to inform their graduates of the job possibilities that exist, and to further the applications of anyone who feels he has the qualifications for any particular post. Devices, as objective as possible, have been installed to bring prospective employer and employee together. The situation is hopeful.

Here, then, are five things that have been associated with education for librarianship during the period under review. They are meaningful in establishing the historical frame of reference for our further discussions.

# Education for Librarianship Abroad

LEON CARNOVSKY

EDUCATION FOR librarianship in any country may be understood best in the light of conditions that brought it into being. Library philosophy, like the libraries themselves, varies from country to country, and library training itself may be expected to differ too.

In the United States, education for librarianship began in 1887. This was more than thirty years after the opening of the Boston Public Library and eleven after the founding of the American Library Association, an event signaling the culmination of a long period of public library development in this country. My point is that formal education for librarianship came *after* a long period of library operation, and problems of curriculum construction were therefore resolved in the light of the library practice then known. Organization of collections for use was the touchstone; hence, the emphasis on technical services, on reference work, and on aid of whatever sort to the reader. Even with the later development of academic libraries, the emphasis remained much the same—an interesting commentary, since nowadays we tend to stress differences between the two types of library.

The European library tradition is not only much older than our own; more important, it is different. Here one tends to equate American librarianship with public librarianship; the European tradition has always stressed preservation of books and their limited use. The contrast may have been overemphasized; nevertheless, it is real. And because the distinction is real, preparation for librarianship on the two continents has naturally taken different directions.

From the very nature of European libraries, it was inevitable that the librarian came to be regarded as something of a fusty scholar, with no distinct profession as librarian and therefore without the necessity of special preparation. Only as such conceptions under-

went a change could the profession of librarianship come of age and the development of programs to prepare for it begin. And when they began, they took a different form in Europe from that in America, because the students were being groomed for different kinds of libraries. France and Germany stressed archival and research libraries, the United States—and later England—public libraries. This contrast has been pointed up very sharply by John D. Cowley in his comment on the English librarian—and, may I add, by extension on the American librarian as well:

The English librarian is much less concerned . . . with books as depositaries of knowledge than with their storage and distribution. He is in fact more interested than his continental colleagues in the administration of a service to the public and the satisfaction of a public need, and much less interested in the actual contents of the books under his charge. He is an administrator rather than a scholar. Even his treasures, early printed books or manuscripts, he regards as luxuries, things not to be sought after if the supply of modern literature to the public should suffer in consequence. If he has an exhibition of rare books or prints he will show the professional visitor how well it is laid out, invite him to notice the careful adjustment of the lighting, or explain the construction of the showcases. . . . His motto might be: "Think of everything"—the acquisition of books, their storage, the lighting, heating and cleaning of the library building, its equipment and staff and all the technique of organization; but his interest in the contents of books is limited to the estimation of their value as a means of information or recreation.

#### LIBRARY EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Because in America and in England the concepts of the librarian have much in common, it seems appropriate to begin this brief survey of education for librarianship abroad with Great Britain. The British Library Association controls the preparation of librarians to a far greater extent than does the American Library Association, even through its Board of Education for Librarianship. In England the highest professional recognition is to become an F.L.A.—Fellow of the Library Association. The librarian earns this distinction in one of two ways, and both entail a series of examinations for the final hurdles. Naturally, these examinations influence the nature of one's preparation for them.

The most common methods of preparation are to attend a series of

lectures, to learn by experience, or to learn through independent study. Or, one may enroll in the correspondence courses conducted by the Association of Assistant Librarians. There are three series of examinations: the entrance, the registration, and the final; the candidate at the higher levels is assumed to have demonstrated his ability at the lower. The examinations now given are roughly comparable to the elementary, intermediate, and finals which formerly prevailed. Since the present examination structure is an outgrowth of the earlier one and in many respects is comparable to it, we shall first consider the three levels of examination given in 1945 and reported in the *Yearbook* of the Library Association for 1946.

To qualify at the elementary level, all but the graduates of approved universities must pass a six-hour examination—half of it concerned with English literary history, the rest with technical services and library administration. This elementary examination is not considered difficult, one writer asserting that experience as a junior assistant alone should provide the necessary knowledge. Three representative questions asked in the 1945 elementary examination, one from each part, are as follows:

- a. Write a critical appreciation (not more than 300 words) of one of the following: the child characters of Dickens; the women of George Eliot; the men of Jane Austen.
- b. How is the Main or Author entry made by the Anglo-American Code for (a) the vocal score of an opera; (b) a concordance to the works of Tennyson; (c) the writings of a woman who has changed her name after having written under an earlier one; (d) a publication of a local institution?
- c. In what ways do you imagine that the postwar period is likely to affect your career as a library assistant?

Considerable choice of question was permitted throughout.

Candidates who had either passed or been excused from the elementary examination became eligible to take the intermediate examination. This dealt with two subjects only: classification and cataloging, each divided into a theoretical and a practical examination. Six "theoretical" questions had to be answered in a three-hour sitting. For example:

- a. (Classification) "To recognize a class is to recognize the unity of

essential attributes in a multiplicity of individual instances." (A. Wolf, *Textbook of Logic*). Explain this.

- b. (Cataloging) Cutter says: "In regard to the author entry it must be remembered that the object is not merely to facilitate the finding of a given book by an author's name. We have also to provide for the finding of all the books of a given author." Discuss this in connection with the Anglo-American (1908) Code.

In the practical examination in classification, the candidate, using the Dewey schedules, was asked to assign the Decimal classification to twenty books. In the practical cataloging examination he was required to provide the full main entry for each of ten books, the complete transcript of their title pages being given; he also had to indicate other entries and references for a dictionary catalog and index entries for a classified catalog.

The candidate who passed this examination and demonstrated his knowledge of a foreign language was entitled to call himself an Associate of the Library Association, and he could then prepare for the final examination. Before taking it, however, he had to show knowledge of a second foreign language, and he must have worked for at least three years "in an approved library for an appropriate salary"—this last a somewhat odd sign of competence.

The final examination was in three parts, two papers required on each part. The first part, on English literary history, included one paper on the general field and one on a special period. The questions are truly searching; only persons who have undergone a thorough discipline in English literature could answer them intelligently. Certainly they compare well with questions that might be asked of a Doctoral candidate in English in this country; for example: "Outline the chief stages in the growth of the Arthurian legends, and demonstrate their appeal to English writers down to modern times." In place of literary history, however, the candidate could elect the literary history of science, or the literary history of economics and commerce. In either case the two papers were required, and the questions were not easy.

The second part of the final examination dealt with bibliography and book selection. The candidate wrote for three hours in the general field, and in addition he prepared a paper on each of two selected subjects. These could be historical bibliography, or paleog-

raphy and archives, or indexing and abstracting. The third and last part of the final examination consisted of advanced library administration, two papers being required, the first termed fundamental and general. For the second the candidate could elect public libraries, embracing urban, county, and school libraries, or university and special libraries. "Administration" for the purpose of these examinations includes library objectives, government, organization, professional associations, even professional literature. Successful performance through this final series of examinations entitled the candidate to recognition as a Fellow of the Library Association; one feels he certainly had earned it.

The present examinations are similar to those described. The registration examination differs from the intermediate in that it includes—besides classification and cataloging—bibliography, assistance to readers in choice of books, library organization and administration, and history of English literature. As the *Yearbook* of the Library Association states: "This is the general professional examination, as a result of which successful candidates will be eligible for registration as Chartered Librarians." It is, of course, the corollary of the American basic training program. The final examination appears to be similar to the one formerly required, but now the candidate must also write an essay of five to ten thousand words on some subject related to librarianship, bibliography, or literature. And finally, he may have to stand an oral examination on the subject matter of the essay.

Although most British librarians prepare for the examinations, particularly at the first two levels, by attending lectures, enrolling in correspondence courses, and engaging in independent study, two other means have developed; one, after the first World War and the other, after the second. The University of London School of Librarianship was established in 1919, its two-year course leading to the University Diploma. The School was coldly received by the profession at large. According to the late John Cowley, former director of the School, the bone of contention was the School's emphasis on *education* at what seemed the expense of *practical training*. Its graduates were treated with scorn. Later, a revised curriculum provided more training in cataloging, classification, and reference work; a three-week apprentice period was also adopted. Graduate students

were excused from further study of English literature, but all students were required to demonstrate their competence in Latin, French, and German. Further, a bibliographical thesis was required. It is interesting to see the extent to which this program has influenced the examinations required now by the Library Association. Indeed, holders of the Diploma from the London School of Librarianship are now exempt from the Registration (Intermediate) examination entirely and from several sections of the Final examinations.

According to Mr. Irwin, present Director of the London School, applications for admission now far exceed the available accommodations of the School; its fifty students are selected from three groups: (1) college graduates, preferably with honors degrees; (2) overseas students and advanced students; and (3) ex-service librarians desiring a year's refresher course. (Mr. Irwin adds that holders of the Diploma are readily placed in satisfactory positions, starting at an annual salary of £300 to £350—about 1200 to 1500 dollars.) The Diploma still requires two years—one devoted to the regular library courses, the other to "practical experience in a salaried post." The Diploma also requires, as before, the preparation of a bibliography or thesis. In 1947-48 a new curriculum was introduced, with attention to paleography, archival administration, constitutional history, Anglo-Norman French, and medieval Latin, along with some of the more usual courses in general librarianship. About fifteen students enrolled in this program, which leads to a Diploma in Archives.

By far the largest number of candidates for the Entrance and Registration examinations prepare by the part-time study referred to above, plus an entirely new postwar development: the establishment of seven new library schools at technical colleges.<sup>1</sup> All of them offer a one-year course, and for the present are accommodating mainly ex-service librarians. Several hundred men and women, aided by government grants, have enrolled, and it is hoped that when this temporary source of students has been exhausted the seven schools will continue with students selected in a more normal way.

So much for Great Britain. The program there is intensely practical, and the connection between training and practice is close. The

<sup>1</sup> Brighton Technical College; City of London College; Leeds College of Commerce; Loughborough College; Manchester College of Technology; Newcastle-upon-Tyne Municipal College of Commerce; and Glasgow and West of Scotland Commercial College in Glasgow.



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one exception is the strong emphasis on English literary history, a becoming gesture to the literary tradition in librarianship, and even this requirement is not an integral part of any library school curriculum. At least in its externals, the British scheme does not differ appreciably from the American.

### LIBRARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

In France, as in England, the program has been dominated by an agency superior to the schools themselves. In England it is the Library Association through its examinations and in France it is the French government, whose Ministry of Education has power of appointments to many libraries. For a long time the graduates of the *École des Chartes* enjoyed a preferred position in the filling of library positions—even positions for which its decidedly specialized program furnished no relevant or adequate preparation. The *École des Chartes*, founded in 1821 to teach paleography and related subjects, is essentially a school for the training of archivists. Its three-year curriculum naturally shows a strong preoccupation with history and historical method, including paleography, Latin philology, bibliography, diplomatics, civil and canon law, illumination of manuscripts, block books, etc. As M. Gabriel Henriot, formerly Inspector of Libraries in Paris, wrote over a dozen years ago: "This is the instruction upon which rests the famous (or notorious) technical diploma and which, in fact, gives the *École des Chartes* a monopoly on the preparation of librarians."<sup>2</sup> As a result of complaints from the Association of French Librarians, a decree of the Ministry of Education, in 1932, prescribed a program calling for four major areas of competence: (1) technique and history of the book; (2) cataloging; (3) bibliographies; and (4) library administration. Upon completing the program and after an apprenticeship of three months, the candidate was to be awarded the *Diplôme Technique de Bibliothécaire*. However, the program as set up by the *École* was still dominated by the archival point of view. Thus, of fifty course hours required, thirty were devoted to technique and history of the book and general and historical bibliography, only six to cataloging, one to classification,

<sup>2</sup> "C'est cependant cet enseignement sommaire qui reste à la base du fameux diplôme technique et qui assure, en fait, à l'*École des Chartes* le monopole de la formation des bibliothécaires . . ."

and five (presumably descriptive) to libraries of various types in France and abroad. Needless to say, this has failed to satisfy the complainants.

Though the École des Chartes dominates library education in France, other schools are worth noting. One, the École municipale de Bibliothécaires de Paris, was established in 1930 at the Bibliothèque Forney. Its program, comprising both class and field work, definitely prepares for popular librarianship. The topics covered included a survey of public libraries of different kinds—scholarly, popular libraries for adults and for children; practical bibliography and reference work; book acquisition; cataloging; and physical preparation of books, including binding, lettering, and stamping. Admittedly very elementary, the École municipale seems to have met the needs of small libraries, but because of financial difficulties it was suspended in 1936. It has been succeeded by one at the Institut Catholique de Paris, with the same emphasis on the problems of popular libraries, and today the school is still in operation. It prepares young women for service as technicians in popular and hospital libraries. The program includes material on the moral and social importance of reading, contemporary literature, administration, classification and cataloging, and history of the book. For the directors of small libraries, the Association of French Librarians has organized short courses that embrace lectures on classification and cataloging, history of the book, and various problems in work with adults and children; it provides also for visits to libraries and opportunities for practice work.

Most familiar to American librarians, perhaps, is the American School in Paris—the École de Bibliothécaires established in 1923 under the aegis of the American Library Association. Here was truly an international school, with students from twenty-five different countries. It has been warmly praised for the excellence of its instruction and for the quality of its graduates. Its one-year curriculum was built around administration, the technical services, and the book: its history, problems of selection, reader guidance, and books for children. The direction of the School was American, the instructors French and American. The point of view was essentially American, adapted to European conditions. The School was discontinued in 1929, when American aid was no longer forthcoming. The

suggestion that a new school be established, one more closely attuned to French needs, provides a concrete example of the strong nationalism that pervades even education for librarianship, and of the dissatisfaction that results from transplanting any scheme of training from one environment to another, where cultural traditions are uniquely different.

The status of education for librarianship in France since the end of the war is summed up by M. Vendel, Director of Libraries in the Ministry of Education, in his 1948 report to the International Federation of Library Associations: "Professional education of librarians is in a period of transformation. It can be defined in two words: *on construit*." The plans call for written and oral examinations in contemporary librarianship, its organization and functions, modern literature, and readers and reading, and would lead to the *Diplôme Technique de Bibliothécaire*.

Even so brief a consideration of the British and French concepts of education for librarianship reveals the sharp contrast between the two. It has been said that Britain emphasizes the "practicalist" approach, France the "theoreticalist," with the British depending largely on practical experience and the French on formal teaching. This distinction, if real, is rapidly fading, especially so since England is developing the library school pattern and both countries provide some field work. Yet the French program, especially as it is offered at the *École des Chartes*, is different, aiming as it does to prepare workers for a wholly different kind of library. In France the popular library has never been strong. Until recently, library training has not been conceived in such terms. Only now is the recognition growing that to place archivists in nonarchival libraries means that their training, good as it has been, is largely irrelevant to the jobs they actually try to fill.

#### LIBRARY EDUCATION IN GERMANY

Germany, on the other hand, provides the clearest example of library training for a specific kind of library. Requirements are laid down and examinations administered by the respective states. (I am, of course, referring to prewar Germany.) German librarianship emerged as a distinct profession after 1880. In 1888 a Prussian commission laid down as a first condition that a prospective librarian

be a university graduate; he must also have pursued studies in literature and linguistics. The Commission called for a minimum of one year's experience in a government library, followed by a written and oral examination. No formal instruction was provided. The written examination consisted of an extended essay on some problem of librarianship; the oral covered four areas:

1. Greek, Latin, and German paleography, particularly of the latter Middle Ages
2. History of printing, particularly its origins
3. History of literature and bibliography
4. Organization of libraries and library economy in general

Three years later (1891) Professor Dziatzko, Librarian at the University of Göttingen and the first professor of library science in Germany, asked that a regular one-year course be set up at the library there, its general nature to be patterned after that of the *École des Chartes*. Though such a course was actually instituted, it was not considered successful since the faculty did not devote enough attention to it and few candidates for positions enrolled.

In 1905 Bavaria introduced modifications in the Prussian scheme, by formally instituting a year and a half of systematic instruction. The first nine months were to be spent in a state, university, or technical library, and the second nine in a state library. There the probationers were given problems which would systematically provide them the essential knowledge of librarianship. This experiment, considered quite successful, led to a Prussian decree in 1912 calling for two years of apprentice training, but the First World War interfered with putting the program into effect.

In 1922 the Prussian State Library returned to the problem of training. Once more influenced by Munich, it adapted the Bavarian program to local conditions and promulgated a new decree in 1928. This decree determined the status of education for librarianship in Prussia up to the Second World War. The following subjects, studied at the University of Berlin, were stressed in preparation for the higher posts: history of languages, history of education, systematization of knowledge, Latin paleography, manuscripts, illumination and miniatures, history of printing, history of the book trade, library law, history and theory of bibliography, bookbinding,

and history of libraries.<sup>3</sup> In addition to this formal study, the candidate had to serve an apprenticeship of two years, one in a university or "Hochschule" library, one in the Prussian State Library.

To prepare for the middle grade, again practical work was combined with course study at regular library schools, with more stress on technical subjects. Prussia required three years for the program—half the time in a library school, half in practical library work. Admission to the middle grade was by oral and written examination, separate examinations being required for positions in scholarly and popular libraries. The written examination for the middle grade of service in a scholarly or scientific library comprised the following:

1. Preparation of a significant essay on librarianship or the book trade (four weeks allowed for this assignment);
2. Writing of a theme in the specific field of the examination;
3. Preparation of catalog cards for works in Latin, French, and English, as well as in German;
4. Composition of two letters of interest to a scientific library; and
5. Demonstrated knowledge of shorthand and typewriting.

The general part of the oral examination which was taken by all candidates included classification and terminology; the book trade, including printing, illustration, binding, and book preservation; library history and organization, cataloging systems, loans, etc.; economics, which probably means library finance; and bookkeeping. The second, and special, part of the oral examination for middle grade service in a scholarly library included:

1. Organization and operation of scholarly libraries; different types of catalogs; the Prussian rules
2. A general knowledge of institutions engaged in literary and scientific teaching and research
3. Major general bibliographies and German, French, English, and American reference books, as well as the more important German special bibliographies
4. Translation of easy Latin, French, and English texts

The oral examination for candidates preparing for work in popular

<sup>3</sup> See J. D. Cowley, "The Development of Professional Training for Librarianship in Europe," in *Library Quarterly*, VII (1937), 187. The complete curriculum is given in Fritz Milkau and Georg Leyh, eds., *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft* (Leipzig: Harrassowitz, 1931-42; 3 vols. and Register), II, 671.

libraries was not much different, but did include some testing of the candidate's knowledge about the general public and about the current state of popular culture.

The third, and lowest, level of library personnel in Germany consisted of the subprofessionals, apparently not considered to require special training for their duties.

A word is necessary about the special program for training public librarians in Leipzig, under the direction of Dr. Walter Hofmann. Here, in a two-year course, half theory and half practice, great emphasis was placed upon the reader and his psychology; the students, all of them mature adults, were required to spend much of their time analyzing reader records. Many of us are familiar with the products of the Institut für Leser- und Schrifttumskunde, of which *Die Lektüre der Frau* is probably best known. The Leipzig program had some influence elsewhere: Cologne's Ostdeutsche Büchereischule was similar, and the Austrian Ministry of Education had prescribed courses like those at Leipzig for public library employees.

Obviously, much of the German program is past history. Yet already there are faint stirrings of rebirth. German library education is attempting to resume the pattern in effect at the outbreak of the recent war. The *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* for 1947 reports the opening of a school late in 1945 at the Öffentliche Wissenschaftliche Bibliothek (formerly the Prussian State Library) with instruction in the history of literature and culture; bibliography; library economy; history of books, the book trade, and libraries; cataloging; and German and Italian literary history. It is interesting to mark a new note in the curriculum: foreign and Russian literary history, a separate course being devoted to the latter.

The Germans naturally considered their standards, for scholarly libraries in particular, to be higher than any prevailing elsewhere, especially in America. Dr. Leipprand, of the University of Tübingen, has called instruction in American schools standardized and mediocre, and essentially public-library-centered. He states that in curriculum content America cannot stand comparison with other countries. The question remains as to how necessary the German type of instruction may be in this country, how useful it would be to prospective public and college librarians. It would undoubtedly be useful, not to say indispensable, to the potential assistant in the great research and

specialized libraries, and these libraries do not now look to our library schools for personnel. There can be no denying the strong humanistic element in the German program, and one cannot avoid regret that more is not found in our own.

## LIBRARY EDUCATION IN OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

The library-training programs of Britain, France, and Germany provide the framework into which may be fitted, with variations, the programs of practically all other countries where library training has been instituted. Cowley has grouped Norway, Belgium, Switzerland, and Great Britain as countries placing major emphasis on practical training, and thus as having most in common with the American tradition. The American influence on *Norwegian librarians* is well known, yet Dr. Munthe, the head of the University Library in Oslo, has expressed himself with some bitterness on this point. In a colorful phrase, he describes the American-trained Norwegian librarian returning home with his head "vollgestopft von amerikanischen Theorien, Sachen, und Buchern," but quite ignorant of native affairs and conditions. The alternative in Norway has been a program of training on the job, under supervision. Meanwhile, the candidate continues his formal study for an academic advanced degree, altogether divorced from bibliothecal matters. Similar "courses" of training have been organized in other Norwegian libraries, under the direction of the Norwegian Library Association or the Ministry of Education.

*Belgium*, too, depends heavily upon apprentice training in the scholarly libraries, without formal library instruction. Prospective librarians, having received a university degree, work for a year in the Royal Library at Brussels or in the University libraries of Ghent or Liège, and may then take the state examination. The potential public librarian may take a two-year course at the École Centrale de Service Social (since 1920) in the American pattern, but modified to European conditions; a third year is devoted exclusively to practical work.

*Switzerland* resembles the United States in that it is a federation, with the cantons being similar to our states in political importance. Therefore, there is no central ministry to supervise libraries, or to set up an examination system for library candidates. Examinations,

however, do exist and are controlled by the Association of Swiss Librarians, an arrangement similar to that of the Library Association examinations in England. The examinations are designed to test for technical ability and for knowledge related to librarianship: history of the book, the book trade, library history and administration, cataloging and classification, and bibliography. An apprenticeship of one year is required, but there is no formal instruction. However, library science courses and courses in bibliography are given at the Universities of Basle, Zurich, and Berne, and candidates for the superior levels must be university graduates.

The French program, as developed at the *École des Chartes*, has had a strong influence in other countries, especially in *Spain* and *Italy*, and as we have seen, in Germany as well. When we consider the kinds of libraries which predominate in both Spain and Italy, it is only natural; the emphasis on preservation and on use by scholars, and the wealth of their libraries in archival and rare materials make adequate historical, bibliographical, and linguistic background essential to the members of their staffs. The best-known library school in Italy is the one at the Vatican, opened in 1934. The curriculum has been described by Signor Giordani of its faculty under three headings: library economy, cataloging (including classification), and bibliography. It points most directly at the scholarly library.<sup>4</sup> This school has been truly international in its enrollment. Though more than half the students are from Italy, some twenty-three countries were represented during the first seven years of its operation. The Spanish library school at Barcelona, too, although requiring some practical work, places local and world history, art, and literature high in its requirements.

In *Czechoslovakia* one finds provision for both popular and scholarly library preparation. The first library school was established in 1920, as a state school, not as part of the University. Though the school has long been discontinued (it closed in 1932), its program included Czech, German, and modern world literature, all from the point of view of the public library; local legislation; introduction to library economy; administration; and cataloging. But Charles University in Prague teaches courses designed to prepare for the scientific

<sup>4</sup>I. Giordani, "La Scuola Vaticana di Biblioteconomia," *Library Quarterly*, XII (1942), 495-503.



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or scholarly libraries; these are offered in the Faculty of Letters. A two-year program is provided, with the usual library science courses.

To continue this description country by country seems undesirable for two reasons: first, the general patterns should now be fairly clear, and secondly, the latest information I have is in most instances prewar and may be inaccurate today. However, a brief comment on library education in *Russia* may be of interest. As has often been reported, there was a tremendous expansion in libraries under the Soviets, and the need for competent personnel was felt everywhere. An Institute of Library Economy was established at Moscow; in addition, special courses for librarians were taught at pedagogical institutions. Admission to the Moscow Institute is limited to graduates of a secondary school, and is based upon examinations in mathematics, physics, chemistry, Russian language and literature, and the social sciences. In 1935-36 some 750 students were admitted. The program, projected on a four-year basis, does not limit itself to library economy. Although library science is not neglected, during the first three years the social sciences and economics are heavily emphasized. The work of the final (fourth) year is devoted to one area of library specialization, coupled with practical work in some library. The socioeconomic curriculum of the first three years embraces dialectical and historical materialism, Leninism, political economy in general and in Russia, history of philosophy, general history of antiquity, the Middle Ages, and the contemporary world. Then there is the study of literature, twentieth-century Russian as well as foreign. Even so, the library science courses comprise more than half of the program. Since the aim is to prepare popular librarians, library science is preferred to archival administration. Special training for work with children is provided; there are courses in child psychology and even in the Communist movement among children! An important place is reserved for children's literature and problems of children's reading.

## LIBRARY EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA

The story of library education in *Latin America* has been so well told by Arthur E. Gropp in the April 1948 issue of the *Library Quarterly*, that it will suffice to mention its chief developments only. *Mexico* established its National School for Librarians in 1945, with an enrollment of 130. Three levels of training are available, a four-year,

a two-year, and a one-year course. The four-year curriculum is heavily dominated by library science courses, though it includes some history, literature, philosophy, sociology, art, and Latin, French, and English. The two-year and one-year courses are more compact.

*Brazil's* program for library education goes back to 1914. It was conducted in the National Library, and until 1946 it included such topics as bibliography, paleography, diplomacy, iconography, and numismatics. In 1946 the program was completely revised and patterned after our own. A similar program is taught in São Paulo, at the Escola Livre de Sociologia e Política.

*Argentina*, too, after several years of partial training in library science, established in 1947 a two-year program at the School of Social Service of the Museo Social Argentino (Buenos Aires). Its curriculum includes history of books, administration, the technical services, and bibliography. Courses entitled library science are also offered at the University of Buenos Aires, but they devote themselves largely to the study of the classics. There is some possibility that this program may be sharply revised to include studies in library science along with the humanistic studies.

*Peru* has been actively engaged in library education since 1943 when a school was established in Lima under the joint auspices of the National Library of Peru and the American Library Association. Students admitted to the school must have completed secondary school and must have a knowledge of at least one foreign language. Following completion of the one-year program, a second year must be spent in practice, after which the candidate receives the degree of Technical Library Assistant.

*Uruguay* furnishes another illustration of a library school recently organized as part of a university. In 1945 the National Congress approved a proposal to incorporate a library school within the School of Economic Sciences and Business Administration of the University in Montevideo. The school offers a one-year course, leading to the degree of Librarian, and later the course is to be extended to two years. The law establishing the school requires that all vacancies in state and municipal libraries be filled by its graduates. The school has been in operation since March 1946 with a mixed faculty of Americans and Uruguayans. According to Mr. Gropp, its director, the course of study is divided into three units of work, each inde-

pendent in itself and extending over a full year. The first deals with history of books and libraries, the second with cataloging and classification, and the third with library administration, including public services, national and international cooperation, bibliography, and reference.

Space does not permit a survey of library education in other parts of the world. Yet it is certainly widespread—in the *Balkans, China, India, Africa, New Zealand*, and elsewhere. In general, it reflects increasingly the American and British pattern rather than the French. It points essentially toward the public library, toward technical and bibliographical services in university and state libraries, and rather less to the archival, the rare book, and the highly specialized collection.

#### CONCLUSION

Three points seem worthy of special comment in conclusion. First, there is the remarkable spread outside the United States of the movement toward education for public, or popular, librarianship in recent years, a fact all the more remarkable when such libraries have not themselves developed yet with anything like the vitality they have shown in this country. In some areas, notably Latin America, public education itself has been so backward that mass illiteracy remains common. Given such a condition, a reading population must first be created before a great public library movement can develop. Until that has developed, many students trained to be public librarians must continue to end up as assistants in college, university, and state libraries, simply because there are not enough public libraries to absorb them.

A second fundamental characteristic of library education programs as they spread throughout the world is the increasing trend toward service to the reader and toward development of the technical services, and the trend away from the scholarly tradition. The *École des Chartes* has exercised a profound influence in many European countries, but today one finds less and less of its humanist emphasis in other schools. In the United States this becomes more unfortunate than elsewhere, notably in England for example, where the prelibrary school curriculum provides the desirable emphasis on humanistic studies. So long as American library schools exclude these areas from their programs, scholarly libraries will turn elsewhere for personnel.

Finally, and in general, the European tradition best seen in prewar Germany and in England—that of recognizing three distinct levels of competence—should be appraised more seriously in this country, and our own library school curricula reviewed in the light of such levels. Mr. Danton, in his recent discussion of education for librarianship, has gone farther than anyone to date in his attempt to define these levels, but he has keyed his curriculum implications to the existing American pattern, not the European. Perhaps this is as it should be; perhaps American librarianship is distinct and requires unique preparation. And yet, this may not be so at all. Our cultural tradition stems from Europe; we are the losers when we try to cut ourselves loose from it. I close with the hope that as the curriculum patterns in American library schools are reconstructed, far more serious study will be made of Europe's experience. Humanism and scholarship may then find their proper place in education for librarianship, here and throughout the world.

## *Discussion*

LAWRENCE S. THOMPSON

THE PRIMARY purpose of Mr. Carnovsky's valuable survey of education for librarianship abroad is to ascertain precisely what we can learn from Europe in this field. What we can offer to the rest of the world will come out in other papers to be delivered at this Conference. Nevertheless, there are certain points of common interest to librarians in all countries, such as the remarkable spread of education for popular librarianship,<sup>1</sup> the rather uncertain situation in training for service in research libraries, and the possibility of stratification into upper, middle, and lower services.

We have been only slightly influenced by the European systems for

<sup>1</sup> On the other hand, there is a dismal note in a recent study of recruiting problems in Latin America by Lic. Gonzalo Velázquez for the Association of College and Research Libraries Recruiting Committee. It was found that some Latin-American library schools are still apprehensive lest political favorites be appointed in preference to their own graduates.

training personnel for research libraries, but our schools for popular librarians have exerted considerable influence abroad. Add to Mr. Carnovsky's evidence in support of this assertion the significant program for library training institutes in China, or the fact that the entire chapter on education for librarianship in Paul Ladewig's well-known *Politik der Bücherei*<sup>2</sup> deals exclusively with the American system. This circumstance places an extremely heavy responsibility on us for maintaining the highest standards possible, for accepting only superior students, and for turning out only superior graduates, even if we do not turn out enough of them. It demands constant scrutiny of the system and ever-present willingness and ability to change if change is needed. The eyes of the library world are focused on the American schools for popular librarians.

I say schools for popular librarians, since up to this time we have had no schools or curricula attuned to the special needs of university or reference libraries, although many schools have well-defined programs for training school and public librarians. As Mr. Carnovsky points out, many scholarly libraries do not now look to the library schools as their exclusive channels of recruitment. It cannot be too strongly emphasized, however, that the École des Chartes tradition is not for America; for that school and others similar to it have turned out more than their share of men who, however competent as archivists, have nearly wrecked their libraries after being placed in managerial positions with no knowledge of personnel administration, of coordination of library service with institutional goals, of architectural problems, etc.<sup>3</sup>

#### AMERICAN NEGLECT OF HUMANISTIC STUDIES

But despite any skepticism about the École des Chartes itself, we must recognize that one of the most disturbing notes in Mr. Carnovsky's paper is the relative neglect of advanced humanistic studies in

<sup>2</sup> Leipzig: Lorentz, 1934.

<sup>3</sup> In all fairness it should be noted that the École des Chartes was not established as a library school, but rather as a school for archivists, which it has continued to be to the present day. See Fritz Milkau and Georg Leyh, eds., *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft* (Leipzig: Harrassowitz, 1931-42; 3 vols. and Register), II, 651. Marcel Godet recognized in a 1932 speech to the Vereinigung Schweizerischer Bibliothekare that whereas the Anglo-Saxon tendency was to overemphasize techniques and routines, the European had an equally regrettable tendency to lose himself in crudition—"La formation professionnelle des bibliothécaires en Suisse," in *Publikationen der Vereinigung Schweizerischer Bibliothekare*, XII (1933), 7-8.

the training of American librarians as contrasted with that of their European colleagues. But why stop here? Equally, if not more, disturbing is the fact that no library school program in Europe or America gives any special attention to training personnel for servicing the broad fields of knowledge represented in the social science and natural science libraries or divisions of libraries. The heavy emphasis put by the Russians on the social sciences is only a recognition of the proper classification of library science, not a curriculum for training a social studies librarian for a university library. Hundreds of university, public reference, and special libraries would or should be prepared to pay top salaries to science, social studies, or humanities librarians. But few are available, few are forthcoming, and the library schools are only now beginning to set up courses and curricula which will produce them.

This does not mean that we should train students especially for service in medical libraries, engineering libraries, or economics libraries. Neither does it mean that we should eliminate those general courses in all fields which are a part of everyone's education. It does mean that we should provide cores of collateral courses in any broad field which a student may elect, whether in the humanities, the social studies, or the sciences. We can then turn out librarians who will be scholars among scholars, scientists among scientists, but who have neither sacrificed basic training in the techniques of library service nor concentrated in some relatively narrow field such as the courses offered by the *École des Chartes*.

When the American librarian sees the examinations given to European candidates for librarianship, he is impressed by the emphasis on foreign languages and literatures. Latin, French, German, and English are considered indispensable. The French decree of 1931 demands competence in handling cataloging problems involving not only books in these languages, but also books in Greek, Spanish, and Italian.<sup>4</sup> The Germans emphasize Italian and Russian in addition to French, English, and Latin. How many of our research libraries would not exert any effort to secure the services of a competent science reference librarian who is equally at home in Russian and French, Italian and German?

<sup>4</sup> Mario Roustau, "Arrêté créant le diplôme technique de bibliothécaire," in *Revue des bibliothèques*, XLI (1931), 353-54.

To insure the future of our research libraries, we must provide leadership trained in schools which combine the best that both Europe and America can offer. Keep in your curricula the essential and basic course in technical and public services, the courses in education, public administration, sociology, and psychology that are the foundations of library science as a social science. But at the same time make sure that your future officer of a research library can, if necessary, catalog an incunabulum, date a Greek papyrus, serve as a resource person in a conference on international relations, organize and direct a bibliography of physics or genetics, and direct the organization of a unit in an acquisition department to establish exchanges with libraries in all countries offering publications in all languages. There is a heavy burden on those who must map out the courses for our future L.S.D.'s and Ph.D.'s in librarianship; for as surely as the tradition of the *École des Chartes* is waning, so sure is it that we have a unique chance to build a system of library schools which will train personnel capable of handling any problem, bibliographic or administrative, in a research library, and thus set the pattern for our colleagues in both hemispheres.

#### STRATIFICATION OF LIBRARY SERVICES

The system of examinations in the stratified library services of Europe is suggestive of many possibilities for us. Hans Füchsel of Göttingen has summarized the practices in various countries in his article on "Bibliothekarische Prüfungen" in the *Lexikon des gesamten Buchwesens*.<sup>5</sup> We have assumed that certification by the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association is a guarantee that examinations given by American library schools are the equivalent of examinations which might be given by an association or by the state. But what can we do about the great variety of schools which in the future may offer undergraduate but not graduate work in librarianship, and which may well begin to turn out members of a "middle service" or "aides de bibliothèques," possibly at the end of two years of college work? Can we be sure that the product will be of reasonably uniform quality? A system of examinations for a "middle service," possibly identical with entrance examinations for

<sup>5</sup> Heraus. von Karl Löffler und Joachim Kirchner . . . (Leipzig: Hiersemann, 1935-37; 3 vols.), I, 203-4.

graduate schools in the case of four-year undergraduate courses in library science, might be a substitute for accreditation of what we have called the Type III schools; a similar, but more elementary, examination might be set up for a two-year terminal curriculum in librarianship. On the other hand, an expanded accreditation policy, covering all types of undergraduate instruction in library science and providing for regular and frequent reinspection, might obviate the need for examinations on this level.

You will note that I suggest a system of examinations for a "middle service," not a "middle service." I can cite from personal observation dozens of cases in European libraries in which able librarians have been chained to positions far below their level of competence by rigid insistence on maintaining formal distinctions between the middle and higher services on the sole basis of educational qualifications. There have been similar cases in America; but we have had far more administrators who have had the courage to demote an incompetent professional to a subprofessional position, or to promote a competent employee who doesn't happen to have his union card from a library school. The value of well-defined classifications of positions is generally recognized, but flexibility is one of the fundamental characteristics of any workable classification plan.

#### NEED FOR FORMAL TRAINING

The trend away from training on the job is evident both in Europe and America; and, wherever possible, we are justified by the consensus in demanding formal rather than informal training. True enough, informal or special training has produced a Richard Garnett, a Henry Bradshaw, a Robert Proctor; but it has also left a good deal of clay in their administrative feet despite their high competence as humanistic bibliographers. Today England is establishing more schools, putting less confidence in correspondence courses and the really uneconomical method of individual training or of training classes in large libraries. Although Dziatzko, Wilmanns, and other great German librarians were produced through informal training under Friedrich Ritschl at Bonn, Dziatzko, once on his own, insisted on the establishment of an "ordentliche Professur" at Göttingen. An "Honorar-professur" was set up in Vienna and Munich, and for years Viktor Gardthausen lectured at Leipzig without any special faculty



rank.<sup>6</sup> Berlin, Jena, and other German universities are currently offering instruction in library science.

Neither is independent study the answer, according to Hermann Escher, who in 1932 addressed the Vereinigung Schweizerischer Bibliothekare on the possibility of holiday training courses.<sup>7</sup> Every effort is pointed in the direction of formal study, even in a small, tetraglot jurisdiction such as Switzerland.

It is indeed distressing that Munthe found American library school training inadequate for Norwegian conditions. It is possible that his ideas might be changed today with the heavy inroads made by English language books into Scandinavian libraries, displacing German and French books as the main stock of foreign works. It is even more distressing that Leipprand should imply that American library schools are mediocre because they are "public library-centered." Is the implication that our public libraries themselves are mediocre despite all the millions we pour into them and that the library schools furnish mediocre personnel, or that some European librarians once more have failed to comprehend all the functions of the great popular libraries developed among the English-speaking peoples?

I suspect that the real basis for both Munthe's and Leipprand's criticisms is that we are insufficiently theoretical, that we concentrate on teaching button-shoe librarians how to use the library hand in an accession book rather than on giving them a broad and firm basis for objective analysis of any problem, whether in Europe or America, whether in a popular or in a research library. Munthe and Leipprand overlook the fact that in many instances European training for librarianship has been even more literal, even less theoretical.

However that may be, education for librarianship everywhere should point at developing the general and the theoretical mind, to discipline the bibliothecal mind with habits of clear thinking. We must develop basic curricula that will train young people for librarianship, not for specific libraries or positions. And when we do encourage some degree of specialization at an advanced stage of training, it must be in some broad division of human knowledge rather than in a specific subject field. We must take over the traditions of

<sup>6</sup> Gardthausen, *Handbuch der wissenschaftlichen Bibliothekskunde* (Leipzig: Quelle und Meyer, 1920; 2 vols.), I, 79-80.

<sup>7</sup> Bibliothekarische Ferienkurse, in *Publikationen der Vereinigung Schweizerischer Bibliothekare*, XII (1933), 23-24.

scholarly achievement in the humanities that European research libraries have so long and so inflexibly encouraged and adapt them to our needs, fit them into those good things that our schools already offer. Wolfgang van der Briele of Wuppertal-Elberfeld quoted Erwin Ackermann in the same issue of the *Zentralblatt* in which Munthe made his complaint: "Wer innerhalb eines sämtliche Büchereiaufgaben umfassenden städtischen Büchereiwesens an leitender Stelle wirken will, der darf jedenfalls weder ein Nur Volksbibliothekar noch ein Nur wissenschaftlicher Bibliothekar sein."<sup>8</sup> The same goes for those who would hold high office in a research library.

<sup>8</sup> "Der Ausbildungsgang des akademisch vorgebildeten Bibliothekars an kommunalen Büchereien," in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, L (1933), 186.



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## *Preparatory Education*

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# The Preprofessional Education of Librarians

CLARENCE H. FAUST

THE NEEDS OF librarians, so far as preprofessional education goes, are not unique, though they may be difficult to meet. What librarians need as preparation for professional training is what the members of every other profession need, and what every other citizen needs—a liberal education. This is not a new idea nor one to which there is likely to be much objection. Everyone seems to agree that all our citizens need a liberal education and that it is of special importance to the professional members of our society; and almost no one would deny its extreme importance to those professions which, in one way or another, shape public opinion and judgment.

If we knew what general or liberal education is, what its proper ends and elements are, and how to produce it, we could dispose very quickly of the topic we are to consider today. We should then be able to say simply that library schools should make the possession of a liberal or general education the prerequisite for admission to professional training. But the term "liberal education," though frequently employed, is used almost as vaguely as the terms "liberty," "democracy," and "equality." Nor is it hard to find contradictory definitions of it and incompatible methods for achieving it. It cannot be defined by the most elementary of all definitional devices, that of pointing to instances or examples of it. Every college in the country, if its president, its deans, and its catalog are to be believed, provides a general education; yet it is impossible to discover any significant common element in all of these plans or even to find a single subject which all colleges claiming to give a general or liberal education regard as essential to that purpose. English composition, history, and a course in the natural sciences would come nearest to meeting this test; but even this apparent area of agreement proves, upon examination, to be apparent rather than real, for the courses labeled English or history

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or science in various colleges differ widely in content, method, and purpose.

I propose, therefore, to see what progress can be made toward drawing at least a general outline of the kind of education which ought to form the base for professional training, by considering the ends which we expect it to serve, the elements of which it should be composed, and the agencies by means of which it may be provided.

### WHY GENERAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANS?

Like teachers, and for much the same reason, librarians have a double duty to society. *As citizens of a democracy*, they must be prepared, along with all other citizens, to deal with its common problems. Each of us is confronted, day by day, with the necessity of dealing with two kinds of questions: those entrusted to all citizens alike, and those which are connected with the special place we occupy in the social structure and the special activities we consequently engage in. The doctor, the lawyer, the engineer, the teacher, and the librarian—each has important special tasks, requiring competence to form kinds of judgments not expected of everyone, and skill to do things not everybody in society needs to be able to do. It is enough for the purposes of society that some men can build bridges, cope with disease, resolve particular questions of law—or accession, catalog, and make available collections of books. It is sufficient that some men are trained to perform these tasks; not all of us need to know about all of them.

In our specialized society, almost everyone, from the chemist to the carpenter, from the architect to the accountant, from the merchant to the housewife, needs to have a specialty of some sort. In addition, there are those common and in a sense even more important problems which confront all of us alike. The presidential election is an example of what I have in mind. In our society, the chief administrative officer of government is selected, not by specialists trained for the purpose, but by general and popular vote. If we are to have a good society, if indeed our civilization is to survive at all in these troubled days, our citizens must be prepared to deal wisely with the difficult questions of international and domestic policy that confront us as a nation. One function of liberal education, certainly, is to prepare us for this task; and liberal education can consequently be described as

the kind of education which everyone in a democracy ought to have.

The need for such education was never greater. The problems of our democracy have become increasingly complex. There is an increasing tendency to suppose that only specialists can solve many of them; and it is under the pressure of this tendency that democracy is most likely to collapse in this country. From the specialists, whose judgments may seem to be superior to those of the people, to the dictators, whose decisions all must approve, is all too short a step; and it is the step America is most likely to take if it ever abandons democracy. The preprofessional education of librarians, like the preprofessional education of every citizen, must be liberal and general.

But in the case of librarians, as in the case of teachers, there is a further social reason for liberal education. The members of these professions need a liberal education not only as individual members of a democratic society, but *as instruments for its development in others*. It is part of the professional responsibility of teachers and librarians to make provisions for the education of our citizens. Libraries can and should be among the most potent instruments of general education; and this is an additional and important reason for insisting upon the general education of librarians. Library schools and departments of education must resist the temptation to be pre-occupied with specialized and technical training for their complex professions at the expense of that general and liberal education essential to the members of the profession, not only as individual citizens but as effective practitioners of their special art of education. It is unfortunate that state requirements for teaching certificates, sometimes adopted because of the insistence of educators themselves, should result in the amputation of the general education of the teacher by comparison with the general education of the students entering other fields. To state this in the bookkeeping terms current in American colleges, the requirement of fifteen or eighteen semester hours of work in courses labeled Education at the expense of courses in history, political science, philosophy, and literature—which future teachers need more than do other students—reflects a misunderstanding of the functions of the teaching profession. Similarly, any insistence upon technical courses in librarianship at the expense of a broad and deep base of liberal education would be a grievous mistake for the library profession in America.



It would be a mistake from which not only society as a whole but the profession itself would in the long run suffer. Looking back over the development of librarianship in this country, one can make out a sequence of shifts running from the conception of the librarian as bookman, through the librarian as technician, to the librarian as administrator. In an earlier period, people seem to have become librarians simply because they loved books. Their love of books was perhaps often narrow, inducing a jealous protection of books merely as physical objects and sometimes producing a resentment of readers who, unless carefully watched and limited, might wear them out. In time, however, the growth of libraries led to the development of carefully worked out procedures of acquisition, cataloging, and circulation, and finally to the displacement of the bookman by the library technician. At the expense of some, although not much, oversimplification, it may be said that in this phase librarians tended to have even less interest in the contents of books and were preoccupied with efficient and smooth ways of acquiring, classifying, and circulating them.

More recently, librarians themselves have recognized the inadequacy of this kind of librarianship, and have begun to talk and write about the need for a philosophy of librarianship. But in the development of this idea, they have reflected the interesting and dangerous drift of American thought in which philosophy has been identified with administration, a drift illustrated in the development of political science where public administration has threatened to displace political philosophy. In accordance with this tendency, the problems of library administration came to be regarded as the basic problems of the profession, and the administrator replaced the technician and the bookman as the profession's ideal. But administration may very easily be merely a high-level technical operation and, as such, a poor substitute for a philosophy of librarianship. If the librarian is to be more than a curator operating a library as a kind of museum, if he is to be more than a technician concerned chiefly with the details of classifying and circulating books, if he is to be more than an administrative expert in budgets, personnel, and public relations—and he needs surely to be more than any one or all three of these—then he must have a knowledge of books, of men, of society, and of the possibilities of education such as only a general education can provide.

Every profession needs to guard against the danger that the pre-occupation of its members with the special problems of the profession narrowly conceived will eventually distort their judgment and vitiate their activity. Men enter a profession because they think it is important and interesting. It is easy for them to mistake the immediate aims or operations of the profession as somehow ultimate and complete. The doctor may become so much absorbed in the technique of an operation as to forget about the health of his patient. A lawyer may become so absorbed in the technique of success in the courtroom as to forget justice. The members of a state department may be so engrossed in the fascinating game of diplomacy as to forget about peace. The teacher may become so much interested in the mechanics of academic operations as to forget about education. And the librarian may become so much concerned about the neat classification, or the careful preservation, or the mere statistical growth in the circulation of books, or in budgets, or in public relations, as to forget about his proper and basic functions. He may thus come to overlook or neglect his task of providing the means of education and of the enrichment of leisure for society, and become content finally to serve the desires of the community for amusement and distraction. To avoid these dangers he needs a broad view of his profession, or to put it more precisely, a philosophic understanding of it. He needs to be able to make the proper distinction between amusement and that use of leisure time by which men may develop their finest potentialities as men. He needs to distinguish between true service to a community and mere subservience to all of its impulses and desires. To make such distinctions, to form sound judgments about such matters, indeed to see his profession as a whole and to understand its relations to society and to the individuals it affects, he must be capable of philosophic judgments. Without this capacity he becomes a manager of entertainment instead of an educator. In short, he degrades his profession.

I have sometimes become impatient in listening to discussions among librarians concerning the dignity of their profession and the means for securing proper recognition for it. It seems too often to be assumed that if a sharp line can be drawn between nonprofessional or clerical library work and professional library activities, that if sufficient insistence can be placed upon library school training and library

school degrees, that if the salary level of librarians could only be decently elevated, the profession would acquire a proper dignity in the eyes of the community. None of these things will give it real dignity. Bricklayers and plumbers mark off their activities sharply enough, limit their numbers carefully enough, insist upon painful enough apprenticeship, and have been fairly successful in securing high levels of wages. But these are not the things which give an occupation or profession dignity in the long run. It is knowledge and wisdom applied to important purposes that give a profession dignity, win it respect, and make it attractive to the best youth in a society. There have been long and earnest discussions among librarians of the need for increasing salaries in public libraries in order to entice good people into public librarianship. I believe they miss the major point, for so long as bright, earnest, highly desirable young people are forced to form their conception of librarianship from the mechanical operations of many public librarians, they will not be enticed into the profession even though salaries are tripled. For the sake of the profession itself then, as well as for the sake of society, it is essential that we make sure that future librarians receive a liberal education.

But there is a third reason for the insistence on liberal education in the education of librarians, which ought to be considered in attempting to describe the desirable preprofessional training of librarians. It needs special emphasis, perhaps, because our understandable preoccupation with the urgent social problems that confront us tends to make us forget that society is not an end in itself, but *a means to the realization of men's potentialities as individuals*. We desire effective social institutions, not simply for themselves—for in that case we might be content with power and efficiency—but as means to something more important. A powerful, well-organized, and smoothly operating society is not necessarily a good society. Indeed, we judge the goodness of a society by determining whether it provides the conditions for free speech, free thought, and free creative activity. A profession which can perform its functions only by sacrificing the human possibilities of its members must, in the long run, be bad not only for its practitioners but for society as a whole. However effective it may seem for the purposes of society, in the end it frustrates its most important one. If a good lawyer can be a good lawyer only by becoming a bad man; if the successful businessman can be a successful

businessman only by ceasing to be a good human being, then something is wrong with the society in which the profession operates and with the profession itself, as well as with its individual members. For this reason then, librarians must have a liberal education—one that prepares them to develop to the fullest extent their possibilities as individual human beings. As John Stuart Mill put it, "Men are men before they are lawyers, or physicians, or merchants, or manufacturers," and they must be educated as men before they are trained to a profession.

If I am right about these things, we should be able to make out, in dim outline at least, what this thing essential to our society, to our profession, and to each of us as individuals, this "liberal education," ought to be. One of our difficulties is that none of us has received such an education. Perhaps if we ask what would be required to perform the threefold function I have sketched, we can determine the general direction in which the land lies, make at least a rough map of it, and indicate the first requirements in breaking a trail toward it.

Librarians need a liberal education in order to form sound judgments concerning those problems which in our society are submitted to the whole body of our citizens. They need a liberal education to form sound judgments concerning the activities in which as librarians they do or should engage. They need a liberal education in order to determine rightly how to make the most of their potentialities as human beings. They need it, in short, to make sound social, professional, and individual judgments. It is the function of liberal education, then, to develop the capacity for judgment, to educate and discipline men's reasoning power. These are the powers which separate us from and elevate us above other creatures. Whatever may be the difficulty of employing them, whatever may be their limitations, they are the best resources we as human beings possess; and their development to the highest achievable perfection is both our unique possibility and our best hope.

#### THE ENDS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

To say, then, that the best preprofessional training of librarians is a liberal or general education, is to say that the most important thing in the education of librarians, antecedent to their professional training,

is the development of the capacity to think. This may become more than a platitude or a truism if we observe what it excludes, or at least what it relegates to positions of subordinate importance. The formation of those habits which constitute a good character, important as good character is, is not the prime function of liberal education. Good habits should be rationally defensible, and to this extent the capacity to form sound judgments is not unrelated to the development of character; but the formation of a good character is not the task of high schools and colleges and should not be demanded of them by the professional schools. Emotional stability is a highly desirable thing, but it is not the primary task of liberal education. The development of reasoning power may contribute to it, but the establishment of emotional stability is not the primary task of high schools and colleges, and should not be demanded of them by professional schools. Nor is the development of physical health, or a pleasant personality, or social grace, or religious or political orthodoxy, a primary function of high schools and colleges. What the professional schools should insist upon, and the only thing they may properly insist upon, is that the products of schools devoted to pre-professional training should come to them able to read, to write, to reckon, to think straight, and to have a philosophic grasp of social and personal problems—in short, with a liberal education.

We need, then, to see what is involved in teaching people to make sound judgments. We must begin here by noticing that the capacity to form sound judgments is not necessarily developed through the study of formal logic. Thinking is an art, and competence in it must consequently be developed by practice. One may learn to think straight by practicing the art of thinking upon logic as a subject matter, but this is not the only subject matter for the purpose, and perhaps not the best. Attempting to teach people to think profitably for themselves through the study of logic may miss the mark as widely, and for the same reason, as attempting to produce good citizens by high school courses in citizenship. Professional schools do not, therefore, need to require courses in logic as part of the pre-professional training necessary for their purpose.

There is another reason for this. The processes of thought for reaching the truth about one subject matter differ from the processes of thought required to reach it about another, and methods of rea-

soning appropriate and fruitful in one field may be inappropriate and unproductive in another. We run up many blind alleys in the pursuit of knowledge because of our failure to recognize this fact. We apply statistical methods where such methods cannot provide the truth we seek, supposing that if all the data concerning a social or political problem could be collected and reduced to tables and charts the problem would be solved; or we transpose a social or aesthetic question into biological or physical terms in the mistaken opinion that the clarity of such a statement is a guarantee of its validity and usefulness.

An extreme example of the difficulties into which this kind of confusion has led us may be seen in our present predicament about rhetoric, poetry, and philosophy. Assuming that only scientific discourse, that is, discourse appropriate for dealing with natural phenomena, is truly valid, we scorn those modes of writing which employ anything other than scientific statements (in the narrow sense of the word "scientific," or what are sometimes called "fact statements"), forgetting that there are subjects not amenable by their nature to the method of the natural sciences. The methods of "science" are appropriate to things which are as they are by natural necessity, but inappropriate to those things which result from human desire, activity, and thought. Literary criticism and political theory deal with matters of this second sort and can consequently not be pursued profitably on the basis of the principles of the natural sciences nor by the methods of the natural sciences. The fact is strikingly revealed in the experience of the natural scientists who invented the atomic bomb and who later became concerned about the military or civilian control of atomic research. The study of atomic energy was a study of that which exists by natural necessity; one sign of this is the fact that the behavior of the atom is unaffected by human theories or pronouncements concerning it. Political science, on the other hand, deals with the activities and institutions of men which flow from the thoughts, intentions, and habits of men. One sign of the difference is that political activity may be modified by men's study of it and their pronouncements concerning it. Expertness in dealing with the problems of natural science, atomic energy for example, would not, therefore, involve or guarantee expertness in dealing with social and political questions. It is the part of wisdom to know what methods

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are appropriate for each different subject matter, and the development of such wisdom is an essential part of liberal education.

### AGENCIES FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

It becomes necessary, therefore, to determine what essentially different kinds of subject matter there are, if we are to know what should be required in the preprofessional training of doctors, lawyers, and librarians. We encounter, at this point, a serious difficulty or obstacle in the contemporary organizations of colleges and universities, where the fields of knowledge have been divided among academic departments and where, one is tempted to say, the lines which separate departmental disciplines have commonly come to be mistaken for divisions of the nature of reality. In the more energetic fields of research, departmental divisions are constantly being transgressed or eliminated. Biochemistry, radiobiology, and programs of "area study" are examples of this tendency, which is inevitable in the extension of knowledge. But academic organizations and college and university curricula lag behind research in this respect, so that it is difficult to outline a desirable program of preprofessional study except in terms of traditional departmental courses.

Fortunately, it is easier to do so now than it would have been twenty years ago, and it is easier largely because of developments such as those in the College at the University of Chicago. But it is still difficult in many places for a student to secure a course introducing him, for example, to the subject matter, methods, and purposes of the natural sciences. He may be offered a course in chemistry or in physics or in zoology for this purpose. But most such departmental introductory courses are more or less consciously designed as the first step in a specialized study of the subject leading to an advanced degree. Indeed, it is not uncommonly the chief pride of good teachers of such courses that their students have had remarkable success in graduate schools. A professor of chemistry handling several hundred students a year may cite the successful graduate careers of eight or ten former students over a period of years as evidence of the excellence of his course, without apparently having asked himself about its effect upon the 99 per cent who had no intention of becoming professional chemists and whose only reasonable profit from the course must be their understanding of the problem of knowledge

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concerning the natural world, the methods for achieving it, the proper fruits of such knowledge, and its limitations.

The needs of students who plan to enter a profession for preprofessional education in several different fields cannot then be stated in terms of traditional departmental courses. Though the term "general course" is a poor description of what is needed, it may at least indicate that the preprofessional training of librarians ought not to consist of a patchwork of departmental courses, each one of which may possibly be well designed as the first step toward a Ph.D. in its field, but cannot serve well the purposes of a general education. What is needed for these purposes is neither a departmental course nor a survey course (which leads students on a conducted tour through interesting aspects of a field), but courses which deal with the basic concepts, principles, problems, and methods of major areas of human knowledge. Three such courses—or to avoid the identification of courses with quarter and semester hours, three such programs of study—each extending over a period of several years, are needed to round out the liberal education of a future librarian: one in the natural sciences, one in the social sciences, and one in the humanities. These three—supplemented by training in writing, foreign languages, and mathematics—would leave no major area of human knowledge untouched and their separation would provide ample opportunity for recognizing the essential differences in the subject matter, the methods, and the principles of various kinds of knowledge.

These courses should not attempt a survey of the existing state of knowledge, if for no other reason than because the contemporary state of knowledge cannot be expected to remain unchanged. It makes no sense to provide students with the conclusion which in five or ten years will have been abandoned. Nor should we expect the colleges to make creative scholars and original scientists of students. We should expect them, rather, to educate students to distinguish between what makes sense and what does not in the formulation of problems and in methods of their solution in the natural and social sciences, and to understand and appreciate literature and the arts.

## METHODS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

If students are to learn to exercise judgment in these ways, something other than textbook material will need to be provided. The



best materials for the purpose are the outstanding writings of natural and social scientists, and great works of literature and art. The study of these—the careful and close examination of them, the analysis of them by reference to appropriate principles and criteria—is, if not the only method, at least the best so far discovered for developing the student's competence to think profitably for himself.

Such study cannot be induced by the lecture system. It can be managed only by the discussion method. One of the most disillusioning experiences of the teacher is that of discovering from examination papers what has happened to the ideas he had presented in lectures, no matter how carefully and even brilliantly worked out. The distortions which inevitably occur as the student sets down in his notebook what he supposes the lecturer has said, and then records on an examination what he supposes the lecture notes he reviewed for it may mean, are likely to destroy confidence in the lecture method of education for undergraduates. There is another more serious objection to the lecture system: even under the best circumstances and with the keenest of students, the lecture method places the learner in a purely passive role, where it is least likely that he will exercise his powers of thought and learn to discipline his judgment. The lecture may have a limited usefulness as a conveyor of information not to be found in print and as providing excitement and stimulus for the study of a subject. But in the education of the judgment, it must yield to the method of class discussion, where the student is obliged to formulate a position clearly, give cogent reasons for it, and defend it against attack.

We must not, at this point, be misled by a superficially attractive and very common objection to education through the discussion of great works. It is sometimes contended that such education is merely verbal, and that education must proceed by experience. The truth is that experience is far from the best teacher. A student exposed for eight hours a day to the playing of music on a phonograph could quite conceivably learn little or nothing about the nature of music. A student shut eight hours a day into a well-equipped chemistry laboratory might, if he were active, have some exciting and even dangerous experiences, but without guidance he would learn nothing about chemistry. Experience is more likely to be a buzzing, unintelligible confusion than an education, unless one comes to it

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equipped with ideas in the light of which it can be grasped, ordered, and understood. The student who is taken to the local police court and the local fire station or induced to witness the activities of a local election is not educated by the process unless he has been led to think about these things sufficiently to analyze his experience. The best way to lead him to think about them profitably is to induce him to read thoughtfully what the best thinkers about the problems of man and society have had to say.

And even if this were not the case, there are other decisive reasons for insisting upon the basic position of careful reading in education. Looking at the matter realistically, we cannot escape the fact that the most important decisions which men have to make regarding society must be made, not on the basis of direct experience, but on the basis of verbal and written reports and arguments. When the people of this country select a chief administrative officer for our government, they do so not in the light of direct experience of the men who offer themselves for this position nor of the problems on which they have announced their programs. Determining for whom to vote in a presidential campaign is not like deciding on the basis of a taste test whether one prefers Chesterfields to Camels or chocolate to vanilla ice cream. These questions may be submitted to immediate experience, but in a presidential campaign we are bombarded by the radio, newspapers, magazines, and even our acquaintances. Sound judgment in this case, which is typical of social problems, must then be made largely on the basis of analysis of the written or spoken word; and to be realistic in education we must prepare students to cope with such situations.

It should not be necessary to labor this point for librarians, who are aware of the power of language in human affairs and whose choice of a profession indicates that they have not adopted the fallacy of education by experience nor the easy contempt for what is called verbalism. The truth is that men cannot be intelligible among themselves nor reach agreement on what is true or right except by the use of language. I cannot lift the top off my head to expose to your direct experience what few ideas are there; I can only make noises at you or put black marks on paper to convey them to you. And when you in turn wish to correct my mistakes, you can only make noises at me or put black marks on paper for the purpose. This is our human

predicament but it is also our glory as human beings, since so far as we can discover it is a possibility open to no other kind of creature. We should not then be set upon a false road in education by the facile warnings again verbalism, but should insist rather that reading and oral and written discussion be the heart of education.

### THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL AND GENERAL EDUCATION

It would be inappropriate, even if there were time on this occasion, to outline in detail the ideal preprofessional curriculum. For one thing, there may be several different forms which would equally well or almost equally well serve the purpose; and it is not the function of a professional school, in any case, to plan, set up, and administer a program of general education. Professional schools may, however, exercise a very considerable influence upon preprofessional training, both through the entrance requirements they set up and the kind of preprofessional education they urge.

Their effect upon undergraduate education may be extremely unfortunate if they yield to the temptation to require or even to recommend specialized preparation for their own program. If, for example, a medical school or a school for the training of geologists decides that a course in physics is necessary or highly desirable for success in its own training program, a cluster of consequences inimical to the kind of education I have been urging is likely to be produced. The course in physics which comes thus to be required will include a great deal which has no direct bearing upon medicine or geology. Meanwhile, the department of physics, quite rightly eager to raise the level and increase the effectiveness of its program, decides to require substantial preparation in higher mathematics as a prerequisite to its physics course. And the department of mathematics, likewise in the laudable desire to improve its own program for developing highly expert mathematicians, steps up its elementary courses in mathematics. What began, then, as an interest in aspects of physics relevant to the training of a doctor or a geologist ends as a requirement for a substantial number of semester hours in mathematics as a prerequisite for a substantial number of semester hours in physics, which, finally, is prerequisite to professional study. Meanwhile, the medical school and the school of geology find that some knowledge of botany would be a very good thing and another chain of

requirements begins to be forged, to which still a third is added as both schools reach the conclusion that a certain knowledge of chemistry is essential to their purposes and demand it as a prerequisite for admission to the study of medicine or geology. The sheer mass of such requirements may eventually leave only a very limited and totally inadequate amount of time for general or liberal education. A certain knowledge of physics, botany, and chemistry may truly be necessary for respectable training in medicine; and professional schools, eager that their students should have both a liberal education and adequate preparation for the finest kind of professional training, find themselves in a difficult dilemma. The answer lies very largely, it seems to me, in a careful scrutiny of the precise nature of the specialized preprofessional training needed and the setting up of specialized courses to produce it efficiently, rather than the requirement of departmental courses designed primarily for specialists in the departmental fields. Fortunately, library schools have not accumulated a heavy load of such requirements and are happily free to demand a liberal education.

What they ought to demand, I believe, is not the fulfillment of a particular curriculum but the possession of a kind of education, the kind which might be expected from a curriculum directed, not to the communication of facts or the memorizing of currently favored interpretations of facts, but rather to the development of the student's competence to think profitably for himself; a curriculum recognizing the differences in the subject matter and methods of the natural sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities; a curriculum recognizing that the formation of judgment requires something more than the lecture method of instruction and depends upon the constant rigorous practice of reasoning upon material sufficiently rich to be rewarding in this process, rather than upon textbooks; a curriculum, in short, which may be expected to develop the student's philosophic powers in the best sense of that word.

Such a curriculum would provide for discussions which analyze the methods of formulating and solving problems exhibited in original writing on natural phenomena. It would provide for similarly rigorous studies of writings on ethics, government, and society. It would provide for the study of important histories, rather than textbooks of history, in an effort to develop the student's capacity to

perceive the principles underlying different kinds of history, rather than to the accumulation of historical facts. It would undertake by similar methods to prepare the student to appreciate the products of man's art and creative imagination which constitute the humanities; and, above all, to provide the beginnings at least of a philosophic outlook by leading students into the great questions which philosophers have raised concerning the meaning of existence and of the nature of knowledge.

Though I suppose there would be little disagreement about the ends which ought to be sought in the preprofessional training of librarians, and perhaps not even a great deal concerning the areas of study which ought to be handled, I can very well imagine your regarding all this as loftily impractical. Courses of the kind I have described are exceedingly rare; and a full system of such courses for the purposes of liberal education is hardly to be found anywhere outside this campus. Even if library schools agreed upon the desirability of such programs of study, what in the world could they do about it? At best, they must undertake to select certain courses from the vast miscellaneous array offered in most colleges and universities—the ones most likely to be profitable, or perhaps least likely to be harmful—and to specify them as requirements for entrance into formal training for librarianship.

The situation is not, I believe, quite so hopeless as this, though it may be impossible to deal with it by the methods we now ordinarily employ. We are accustomed to put admission requirements in terms of courses and grades. We specify, for example, that a student must have registered for so many semester hours of course work in the natural sciences, for which an instructor has been willing to give him a grade perhaps of C or better. This is truly fumbling in the dark, for we have no way of knowing, as we look at the student's grade record, what the courses contained or what the grade meant.

There is, however, a practicable though not simple way out of our difficulty. If we can agree that a liberal education is the best preparation for professional training; if we can agree, as I believe we can, on the major characteristics of such an education; we can then proceed to set up entrance examinations to determine whether our students have what we believe they should possess as a preparation for professional work. These examinations cannot reflect individual courses offered

in any particular institution, and it is highly desirable that they should not do so. What we should test is the competence to form sound judgments in the major areas in which men must exercise judgment—that is, with respect to the natural world, to society and its institutions, and to the products of man's creative power in literature and the arts. As a test of his preprofessional education, a student applying for admission to the library school should be required to explain, interpret, and evaluate pieces of writing in these fields. In preparation for such an examination a student might be told to read three or six books. These, together with whatever notes he may have taken upon them, he would be instructed to bring to his examination, which would consist of as penetrating and difficult a set of questions as might be thought at all reasonable. The student who demonstrated his capacity to interpret accurately and judge soundly of the books he had read would not only be amply prepared for his professional education, he would already have achieved competence in a basic part of it.

If this suggestion makes any sense, it should not be too difficult to work out. A library school in a university might seek the cooperation of other professional schools on its campus. The mechanics of test preparation, though arduous, need not be assumed by the school itself, since agencies for this purpose, such as the Board of Examination at the University of Chicago, are now well-established.

The proposal is not, I am convinced, at all impractical; and if it leads even to an approximation of the kind of preprofessional training I have outlined, the work of library schools for our profession and for our society might be tremendously improved.

## *Discussion*

LOUIS S. SHORES

MY TRIBUTE TO Mr. Faust's provocative paper is in the margins of my copy. Hardly a page has escaped penciled comment. When I agreed I underlined; when I did not I questioned.

I begin with the underlines. Librarians, like other people in a democratic society, need a liberal education. They need it not only to live their own lives but to help others live theirs. For, as Mr. Faust has so ably pointed out, librarians share with teachers a major professional responsibility for the development of their fellow men. But when we ask just what is this liberal education, what are its ends, its means, and its elements, there are, as Mr. Faust recognizes, many answers.

With considerable attention and anticipation, therefore, I read this answer of Mr. Faust's. It is an exceedingly good one for librarians and teachers to study, not only for its positive proposals but for its negative cautions. The warnings against overspecialization, overemphasis on techniques and administration, and overreliance on quantitative measures in research are all professionally pertinent and timely. We must not so far depart from the bookman concept as to earn the hyperbole voiced by a publisher's representative at a meeting of the American Library Association: "Judging from this program, one might conclude librarians are allergic to books." These professional exaggerations are obviously not part of a liberal education.

Equally significant for a concept of liberal education is Mr. Faust's censure of campus compartmentalization of knowledge into subjects, courses, and credits. "Not the fulfillment of a particular curriculum," Mr. Faust has said so well, "but the possession of a kind of education" is what the library schools should demand. And with that I heartily agree.

Also, in this series of negative statements, I share some of his skepticism about two of our time-honored learning methods, namely, the lecture and the pragmatic emphasis on learning by doing. It delights my essentialist soul to read Mr. Faust's telling arguments for learning by reading. For fear that the prewar essentialist revolt against the progressive activity school may have been forgotten, I recall to the anti-education portion of the campus faculty that not all educationists, by any means, subscribe to the Dewey-Kilpatrick philosophy. I am sure, as I have been for a long time, and as I believe any librarian with professional faith in what he is doing must be, that a large portion of our life experience will be vicarious, and that reading is one of the most effective means for experiencing life outside of firsthand living.

## PREPROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF LIBRARIANS

### STRAIGHT THINKING AND CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

When we come to the positive aspects, I accept at once the importance Mr. Faust attaches to the development of the capacity to think as a function of liberal education. Like him, I know that straight thinking can be an important asset, not only in librarianship, but in life. I have, therefore, no objection to making the development of the capacity to think an important function of education. But I cannot accept the aim of straight thinking as the only function of a liberal education, or as even the most important.

Mr. Faust will therefore readily understand why the following statement, taken from the fourteenth paragraph [p. 100] of his paper, troubles me deeply: "The formation of those habits which constitute a good character, important as good character is, is not the prime function of liberal education." With that statement, with most of that paragraph, and with some of the observations on method and media that grow out of that position, I must take sharp issue.

I have tried to justify Mr. Faust's position to myself on the grounds that straight thinking means sufficient wisdom to insure character and the moral purpose I seek in a liberal education. But I have been unable to convince myself. Indeed, I have convinced myself of the opposite. I believe if a choice has to be made of a single function of liberal education, the development of character would be more likely to develop the capacity for straight thinking than the other way round.

I have experienced, both firsthand and vicariously, the businessman with a remarkable capacity for straight thinking. The tremendous empire of wealth he has created is in many ways a tribute to his capacity for disciplined reasoning. And yet with utter ruthlessness he has lived by the law of the jungle, destroying completely the weaker minds that opposed his. Judged by the standards of the leaders of our society, certainly these businessmen have been thinking straight.

Then there was the German university, the apotheosis of devotion in developing the capacity to think, at least in the opinion of a generation of our academic leaders. There can be no question about the thoroughness, the deep thought, the dedication to developing man's reasoning capacities in those great Teutonic institutions of higher education we so assiduously imitated in our own graduate



schools. But did this straight thinking result in the development of a desirable individual or society? It did, if you accept the Prussian way of life or the Nazi concept.

Consider the German general staff enlisting its full capacity for straight thinking. In terms of military science, straight thinking in war demands the total destruction of your enemy. In Clausewitz' classic words, "the enemy must be rendered totally incapable of defending himself." When the Germans were victorious, certainly the German general staff was doing straight thinking. But where was the high moral purpose?

Now I know that all of these examples fail to illustrate what Mr. Faust considers straight thinking. But I cannot escape the conclusion that there is no guarantee Mr. Faust will be in a position to define straight thinking for us. I would rather place my faith in a liberal education which considered character development its high purpose; which was more concerned with right doing than with straight thinking. Straight thinking, if made an end in itself, might be devoid of moral purpose. But good doing, even without straight thinking, would be less likely to produce major harm to man or society. Consequently, the rest of that fourteenth paragraph which denies development of emotional stability, physical health, pleasant personality, and social grace as primary tasks of liberal education, and urges library schools not to demand them of high schools and colleges, is unacceptable to me.

What follows seems less important. Reading, writing, and reckoning—the trilogy of the little red schoolhouse—are susceptible to all the weaknesses attributed to course compartmentalization at the higher levels, to the snares of "facts for facts' sakes." Mind you, I do not advocate admitting to library schools people without the three R's; I merely object to coupling these skills, these means, with the ultimate ends of a liberal education.

### THE MEANS OF A LIBERAL EDUCATION

When it comes to the means of a liberal education, I am, as a librarian, convinced of the importance of reading as a medium of communication; but I am unwilling to concede that it is the only medium or likely to continue to be the best. I have come out of four years in the army disturbed that we have not made more

effective use of audio-visual media. No one who has seen the British documentary film on America will deny its possibilities for developing the capacity to think. I do not believe young people can fully gain an appreciation of music by reading alone; the use of recordings of the great masterpieces has helped tremendously.

And so it goes through all of the categories of audio-visual materials. There is every reason to communicate through all of the senses; through great books and through not-so-great books; through pictures, slides, film strips, radio, and television; and through the field trip, which may include other sensory experiences. Who knows, with current extra-sensory research we may be approaching the day when people may communicate directly, mind to mind, without the handicap of ambiguity so frequently inherent in the verbal medium.

And now for my final difference with Mr. Faust. Fundamentally, I object to the term preprofessional. From my standpoint, what Mr. Faust refers to as general education might as well be coprofessional. I do not believe any academic course, department, or integrated division or area, such as the three Mr. Faust advocates and such as are now almost universal in our American institutions of higher education, has a monopoly on liberal or general education. I believe it is possible to educate students to distinguish between what makes sense and what doesn't through almost any subject or course. I have no objection to compartmentalizing man's knowledge into the three great divisions of the natural sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. Indeed, that is exactly what my university and many others do on the junior college level. But neither do I object to students enrolling in courses in chemistry, economics, English literature, or, and this may be anathema, marriage and the family, home economics, education, and library science.

I recall a course in comparative education I had with the late Michael Demiashkevich. No course in literature, philosophy, history, or natural science I have ever taken was richer in allusions, or more stimulating to thought. A prize Greek scholar in Russia, an omnivorous reader of world literature in some twenty-two languages, and above all an inspiring teacher with the divine spark that kindled in students a blaze of thinking, Demiashkevich contributed mightily to the liberal education of his students, even in the opinion of the most academically conservative.

Any of us who have had experience, on the other hand, with the integrated courses in the humanities, the kind that start off in September with Aristotle and barely make the middle of the eighteenth century by June, know that such teacher-conceived integrations sometimes develop only confusion in the mind of the student and result in those private invectives against "crab culture" which I have heard on even the most respectable of academic campuses. The point I wish to make is that subject content is less important than the teacher and student. I believe it is possible for a student to obtain a good general education from work in almost any subject if it is taught well. I believe there is good general education in a good reference course, a course in book selection, or classification. I believe, in short, that the nature of the content is less important for general education purposes than the effect a certain course given by a specific teacher may have upon the development of a particular student's character.

What then should constitute the general education of the librarian? In my opinion, a good secondary education plus the program of an alert junior college will provide adequate opportunity. If at the end of that time, the student cannot think straight and has not the elements of good character—in other words, cannot satisfy both Mr. Faust and me—then he is not a fit candidate for admission to a calling with as high an obligation to society as librarianship. If he is, he can demonstrate it through examination, interview, apprenticeship, or trial employment. In spite of these demonstrations, some of the candidates will inevitably not measure up. That is the risk that librarianship, along with other occupations, must take with each generation.

I believe the new program of the Graduate Library School is sound. It pleases me to see the student working concurrently in an older academic subject and a newer professional field. I am certain both areas are contributing to the student's preparation for life and for making a living. I know there is general education as well as professional education in both philosophy and library service. You will understand, therefore, why I do not believe in preprofessional education. I do not believe that general education ever stops; nor do I believe that professional education begins. The two go on together from the beginning to the end of both formal and informal schooling.

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*Professional Education  
for Librarianship*

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# Education for Public Librarianship

RALPH MUNN

**B**EFORE WE can prescribe the education of the public librarian, we must forecast from trends and stated goals the nature of the library for whose service he is to be educated.

In her presidential address to the American Library Association in 1947, Mary Rothrock stated the case conservatively when she said, "The 'handmaiden' idea, that the library is primarily a passive conservator of man's cultural heritage, lingers now as little more than a vestigial trace from a vanished past. Events have placed on today's libraries . . . a more positive responsibility for getting the insides of books into the minds of men."<sup>1</sup>

Progressive public libraries are becoming more active participants in the life of their communities. Today's public relations program calls for library participation in intercultural councils, social planning agencies, civil rights leagues, The Foreign Policy Association, and other activities which go far beyond the women's clubs and Parent-Teachers Associations to which we once limited ourselves. We are bolder in identifying our institutions with public issues, even controversial ones, and this trend is becoming stronger.

Public libraries are seeking to expand their influence by dealing with groups of people, and we hear of the teaching function of the library. The Great Books Project, discussion groups on current problems, and educational motion picture forums are all attempts to make people think, as well as to stimulate individual reading. You will recall Baltimore's project in mass appeal relating to atomic energy. There is evidence that the trend toward group work will grow stronger.

But these are all fringe activities. They are related to public relations as well as to public service. Budgets place a limit upon our

<sup>1</sup>"On Some Library Questions of Our Time," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XLI (1947), 243.

## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

total activities, and the library which fails to keep a proper balance between mass appeal and individual service will find itself in trouble.

Yesterday, today and tomorrow the public library must devote the major part of its resources to satisfying the actual demands of its constituents. Those demands are for individual book and information services. The student's lessons, the housewife's desire for a novel, the businessman's problems, the technical worker's need of data, and the general reading urge of all—these are the stuff from which public library demands are made. There is no reason to think that they will diminish. If group work is successful, it will make more converts to individual reading and study.

When we strike a final balance, then, we find that present trends are unlikely to alter substantially the general over-all character of the public library of the predictable future. There will be new sprouts here and there and we hope that some of them will have a substantial growth, but the main plant will still be devoted to providing book and information services to individuals. Our public librarians must be educated accordingly.

### GENERAL EDUCATION FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIANS

How much general education shall we prescribe for the public librarian of full professional standing? All that the traffic will bear—that is, as much as we dare require in view of the cost of education, our own salary levels, and the competition of other vocations for recruits. Under present conditions, four years appears to be a practicable requirement.

Usually, these four years will comprise the liberal arts college course, and will be completed before entering a library school. If some professional education is given during the undergraduate years, the time so lost to general education should be restored during the fifth or library school year.

Most of us believe, I suspect, that education for librarianship would be strengthened if the content of the general education could be prescribed. If we are to be completely realistic, however, we are forced to agree that within certain wide limits we will accept whatever the student offers.

Medical schools can enforce requirements concerning preprofessional education because medicine is a favored calling. In September

1948, the medical school of the University of Pittsburgh admitted 85 freshmen who were chosen from 1900 applicants, all of whom met the formal requirements. When librarianship becomes as attractive as medicine, we too can enforce rigid rules.

Mr. Beals' proposed plan, under which the work of the college, the divisional schools, and the library school of the University of Chicago would be integrated, is an important one for Chicago and any other university whose type of organization will permit its adoption.<sup>2</sup> Certain library schools are now enrolling undergraduates and will exercise some control over their choice of subjects.

In the main, however, and throughout the foreseeable future, we must depend upon recruiting students from hundreds of colleges which do not maintain library schools; and to a large extent, we must accept students who have completed all or much of their general education before they decide upon librarianship as a career. The library schools can impose a few admission requirements, but general education will continue to be governed largely by the student's own interests and the requirements of his own college.

Actually, this inability to control general education is not a fatal handicap to public librarianship. Trite though it may sound, it is still true that public libraries cover such a wide range of materials and cater to so many special interests that they can make use of almost any type of educational background.

Library schools might well take a more realistic view of the special types of education which can be utilized. It is hard on one's blood pressure to spend most of an American Library Association conference week in search of a science and technology librarian, and then hear of an M.I.T. graduate who was refused admittance by two library schools for the sole reason that his preparation was so largely in the fields of science and technology. Admittedly, the technical librarian will be a better citizen if he has had his share of humanistic studies, but at present the public libraries cannot afford the loss of a single M.I.T. graduate. Unbalanced courses, involving an unusual degree of specialization, should also be accepted in art, music, and other fields in which public libraries commonly provide subject divisions.

<sup>2</sup> Ralph A. Beals, "Education for Librarianship," in *Library Quarterly*, XVII (1947), 296-305.



We come now to library education itself, and for full professional standing we must prescribe one academic year. It may be a separate year following the granting of the baccalaureate degree, or it may be part of a five-year integrated program of general and library education. It is fortunate for the profession that the Master's degree is now given for these programs, although the form of the degree is less important in public than in some other types of libraries.

#### DESIRABLE RESULTS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

May we approach the content of the professional education by attempting to determine the results which we hope to gain?

First of all, our aim is to *produce a member of a profession*—a librarian of true professional stature and not just a person who will work in a public library. We want a librarian who feels that his work is a mission and not merely a meal ticket. He should have some feeling for the book, both as a physical object and as a means of communicating thought. He should have an appreciation of the library as an institution which has come down to us from a long and distinguished lineage.

Our public librarian must understand the place of the library in the life of our times, including its relationship with government and other institutions. He must comprehend the library's own peculiar functions, opportunities, and responsibilities. He must be familiar with modern society, its general composition, its various groups, and their special needs and interests.

Also, he must know something of librarianship itself—its development here and abroad, and the common beliefs, purposes, and ideals which give cohesion to its practitioners. All of this he should know, both for its own intrinsic value and for his own professional consciousness.

This phase of library education is covered by most of the library schools in preliminary courses which carry such titles as *The History of Books and Libraries* and *The Library in Modern Society*. The catalog descriptions seem adequate, but we can only hope that they are presented with inspiration and conviction. Certainly librarianship must seek in every way to maintain a spirit of public service and professional responsibility during these days when so many workers seem blind to everything except their own immediate self-interest.

Next, we want a *librarian who knows books*. The successful public librarian must know books, the insides of books. His clientele demands it. The primary purpose of his very being demands it. The fact that he is an administrator and must spend his days on budgets and plans does not excuse him; his acquaintances still expect him to know the auction price of Foxe's *Book of Martyrs* and to have read and formed a critical opinion of the latest novel. The librarian may or may not know how to organize a discussion group or conduct a forum. He will be forgiven his ignorance in that field, but his lack of book knowledge will be held against him.

Once upon a time librarians did know books far better than they do today. That was back in those simpler preautomobile and premovie days when people stayed home and read. Libraries were staffed by people who began to read at five years of age and never stopped.

Since we cannot retreat to former times, we must find other means to secure librarians who know the insides of books. We have seen that we cannot now control the preprofessional education of most librarians, but the schools should encourage general studies and wide reading at their first contact with the prospective student.

The reading void can never be filled by the library schools, but for a time many of them have not been doing as much as they can do. Mr. Wheeler found, and I would emphasize, that "some fundamentals, particularly knowledge of the insides of books, have already been driven out [of the curriculum] or shrunk to bare bones."<sup>2</sup>

It is therefore encouraging to find that some of the library schools are giving greater attention to books and other materials in their recently revised programs. Grouped under some such heading as Resources of the Library, we find courses in which the literature of each field is surveyed and the outstanding books are studied. Most important, of course, is the inspirational power of the instructor. It is in these courses that a lasting enthusiasm for reading should be laid.

Until we are able to control preprofessional education, the resources part of the curriculum, including what we formerly knew as book selection and reference, might well claim approximately one-half of the entire professional education of the public librarian.

<sup>2</sup> Joseph L. Wheeler, *Progress and Problems in Education for Librarianship* (New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1946), p. 56.

We want a public librarian who knows *the professional techniques* which are peculiar to librarianship. Some of us will never catalog a book, but we must learn and retain the general principles of the art if we are to be effective workers in an institution in which the catalog is the key to all of our resources. Five semester hours of cataloging and classification are not too much for the general librarian, although we may have to accept less due to pressure from other courses.

We want a *public librarian who knows people*. He should know people as well as the successful salesman, real estate broker, advertising man, hotel clerk, and even the waiter and bellboy know them. It is primarily a matter of personality, and the library school's responsibility lies more in the selection of students than in what they are taught. There is, however, a body of fact concerning reading abilities and interests which the librarian should know. This information is somewhat incidental to the book-selection phase of the courses on library materials; it can be inserted there, or form a separate course.

One of the favorable results which has come from the current shortage of librarians is that administrators have been compelled to separate professional and clerical duties insofar as that is feasible. Pittsburgh's professional staff now numbers 81, as compared with a prewar 101. With smaller professional and larger clerical staffs, it becomes even more important that the librarian learn *how to supervise the work of others*.

Mr. Wheeler found that "administration is the weakest and most neglected aspect of college, school, and public librarianship, and is chiefly responsible for other shortcomings and for the public's lack of appreciation of the library's usefulness in its own school, campus, or community."<sup>4</sup>

All library schools are offering courses relating to the administration of the various types of libraries, but these courses are largely directed toward problems which are peculiar to the operation of a library. We need librarians who are more effective in general administrative procedures, those elements of administration which pertain to business as much as to libraries. To be specific, may I again quote Mr. Wheeler: "The essential element of administration is direction. It involves: (1) comprehending and foreseeing needs and purposes; (2) planning and finding ways and means; (3) organizing or taking

<sup>4</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 63.

apart and putting together the component elements of the job; (4) selection of personnel, the understanding and appreciation of people and their handling; (5) assigning work according to their abilities; (6) giving instructions; (7) supervision, in many ways the most important, difficult, and interesting aspect of administration, which to the detriment of library service everywhere gets little attention; (8) as a special aspect of supervision, the developing of assistants as individuals; (9) measurement of results in cost and reader satisfaction.”<sup>5</sup>

There are several ways by which public libraries can secure more effective administrators. First, of course, they can do so by recruiting people who have an aptitude for it. Most successful businesses are operated by men and women who have an intuitive sense of administration and who have been developed on the job. We must hope that as salaries grow larger, librarianship will attract more people of that kind. When it becomes possible to exercise more control over preprofessional education, courses in business and personnel management might well be prescribed. But the library schools can do something within the one-year professional program, and they should be urged to do so. Certainly, the various phases of administration offer a rich field to the graduate library schools, as we shall see later. Also, each library which believes itself to have an enlightened administration should take steps to educate its own staff, not only by example but through specific in-service training.

Finally, we want a public librarian who can *think his way through to solutions as problems arise*. Professional education in general is in the process of discarding the old policy of giving the student a mass of specific instructions designed to cover all contingencies. Instead, he is given the ends to be attained and sets of general, governing principles which he is led to apply and thus find his own answers. Library schools are, I think, quite sympathetic to this newer method, and will use it wherever it suits the field.

These are the groups of studies which should form the common core of the library education of the public librarian: (1) a rather brief background setting of books and libraries; (2) the place of the library in modern society; (3) studies which we formerly knew as book selection, reference, and bibliography, integrated and expanded into a resources or materials course; (4) cataloging; (5) readers' interests and

<sup>5</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 64.

abilities; (6) the principles of general and library administration.

### SPECIALIZATION IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

If they are to serve public library needs, the library schools must provide for specialization within the one-year curriculum. They must do so whether or not specialization conforms with their philosophy of education.

Library work with children and young people is the most urgently needed specialty, and curricula can easily be modified to provide for it. The substitution of children's and young people's literature for parts of the adult book courses is the chief requirement.

The bibliography of science and technology is another much-needed special subject which should be made available as an elective in a few schools.

If no more than three to five semester hours of cataloging are required of all students, there should be an advanced elective in cataloging and bibliography.

Rural library service under county and regional organizations is our only means of reaching effectively the one-third of the population who are now without libraries. Certainly, an elective course should be offered by many of the schools in order to interest more students in the library problems of rural districts and to give a better understanding of the special services which are appropriate for those areas.

Some of the gaps which we have noted in our knowledge of general and library administration suggest other elective courses for the public librarian.

The schools cannot, of course, cover all of the special features of the public librarian's job, but we need not despair. We can all point to successful public relations directors, readers' counselors, personnel directors, discussion leaders, and experts in audio-visual appliances and materials who have had no formal training in these specialties. An aptitude, an interest, and a willingness to sit up nights with some of the library's own books are the only real requirements.

The local college and the extension center of a distant one are sources of special instruction which any librarian can use. The college, not the library school, is quite obviously the best source of advanced study for the subject specialist.

## EDUCATION FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIANSHIP

### THE PROBLEM OF ROUTINE PROCEDURES

To what extent must the library schools impart knowledge of the routine procedures which are common to all public libraries?

If only the large libraries were concerned, they might be left to train their own staff members in these practices. By my own calculation, twenty-two of the sixty-five graduates of Columbia's class of 1946 were placed in libraries which would seem to be too small to provide in-service training; I should expect the proportion to be higher in most of the other schools. It is plain, then, that the library schools cannot disregard these processes.

It is not enough that graduates know the theories and reasons for such routines as the registration of borrowers, methods of reserving books, shelf-listing, accessioning, and ordering Library of Congress cards. They must observe at least one acceptable method of accomplishing these processes; they should participate in its operation, not to the extent of gaining speed, but enough to retain a knowledge of its workings. If instruction in these clerical practices cannot be justified under a Master's program, and I for one think that it cannot, it can be given without credit in a short preliminary period or in noncredit hours throughout the year.

### GRADUATE STUDY AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

Graduate library study beyond the fifth year has drawn relatively few persons from the public library field. This may be somewhat due to the interests and offerings of the schools, but even if they should change their emphasis there is no reason to expect a great influx of public librarians. We are not greatly concerned with academic labels, and unfortunately our salary scales usually provide no incentive to graduate study.

A dozen years ago I was roundly abused by the graduate library schools for a statement in a study of education for librarianship which I made for the Carnegie Corporation. I have no desire to parade my stubbornness, and I am not a glutton for punishment. I have chosen to repeat that statement, however, because I was convinced of its truth in 1936 and I believe it to be equally true in 1948. It refers to Pittsburgh: "Except for the director and about six department heads and specialists, I believe that the Pittsburgh staff does not need more bibliographical or technical training than is now given in one-year

library schools. They do need far better general education, infinitely more book knowledge, and experience."<sup>6</sup> Before you jump at me, please note that I am speaking only of a public library and of advanced bibliographical and technical training.

There are certain other spheres of advanced study and investigation, however, in which the public librarian might profit greatly. Many of them lie within the general field of administration which is, as we have seen, the area in which public librarians are least competent. Most of our problems are settled through a procedure which usually goes no further than (1) consultations among appropriate staff members; (2) the gathering of such statistics or other facts as are readily available; (3) reference to articles in the library press; and (4) a questionnaire to determine the practice of other libraries.

The graduate library schools are publishing a growing body of studies which prove that some of our problems can be attacked through methods which result in findings which are both more revealing and more exact.

Few private businesses could survive if they were operated with only the librarian's knowledge of cost accounting. We lack the expert's touch when we try to break down our processes and strip away the parts which are not vital. We have only surface and assumed knowledge of the actual value of some of our public services to the community. Business finds it profitable to maintain research units which constantly probe existing services, and lay the foundations for new ones. The largest of the public libraries might support such units with profit; and as many public librarians as possible should secure some training in the scientific approach to management.

There are, of course, many phases of public librarianship, other than management, in which more revealing and more exact knowledge is needed.

Even though advanced library studies continue to draw the few and not the many, they can contribute richly to public library progress. The dull weight of the *Library Quarterly* is often lightened by a report or survey which sends chief librarians, head catalogers, order librarians, and others into paths of study and investigation which are entirely new to them.

<sup>6</sup> Ralph Munn, *Conditions and Trends in Education for Librarianship* (New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1936), p. 15.

## EDUCATION FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIANSHIP

### "MIDDLE POSITIONS" IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES: THE TYPE III SCHOOL

Up to this point we have considered only the public librarian of full professional standing, and have prescribed not less than four years of general and one year of professional education.

At its 1945 midwinter meeting, the American Library Association Council directed the Board of Education for Librarianship to explore the possibilities of expanding the Type III library schools.<sup>7</sup> Arguments presented there and subsequently expressed the belief that there is a middle group of positions, lying between the full professional and the clerical levels, for which a total of four years of general and professional education is appropriate. Are there, in fact, such positions?

A job analysis indicates that there are no such positions in the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. That library finds that high-grade clerical workers, through in-service training and experience, can rise to all positions which do not require full professional education. Clerical assistants now do almost everything in the catalog department, except the actual cataloging of new titles. In the order department only the chief is a professional. In the public service departments, clerical assistants fill all positions except those which involve direct aid to readers in the choice of books or the securing of information.

Since clerical assistants can do the job—and do it at \$1,500 to \$2,000—Pittsburgh is not interested in paying more for librarians who have completed four-fifths of the full professional requirements.

Possibly Pittsburgh is not typical of the larger libraries. In any event, we must grant the urgent need of librarians for the small public libraries which cannot attract five-year graduates and in which in-service training is not possible.

To my mind, though, the Type III library school does not offer the solution. There is not, and under present business conditions there cannot be, a sufficient salary differential between the four- and the five-year graduates. The small public library which cannot pay \$2,400 to \$2,800 for the five-year graduate is equally unable to pay slightly less for one with four years. Its budget calls for \$1,200 to \$1,800.

<sup>7</sup> "Is Personnel Adequate for the Job?" in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XL (1946), 95.



The small public library's most promising source of help lies in the junior colleges. Three semesters of carefully chosen general education, with the final semester devoted to library studies, would produce librarians who would be far superior to the wholly untrained persons now so commonly found in these libraries. And most important, they would be available at salaries which many of the smaller libraries could pay. Junior college graduates would also be in demand as subprofessional or clerical assistants in larger libraries; and after experience there they would, of course, be better prepared to take charge of the small library.

The Type III library school is a danger to the profession since its graduate lacks only one year of full professional education. Some libraries make no distinction in salary rates or in opportunities for promotion between the four- and the five-year graduate. Without rigid certification laws, the four-year graduates could, if their numbers were greatly increased, make the fifth year seem less necessary and thus reduce professional standing. The junior college graduate, lacking three years of full professional education, would not present this danger.

Before passing from the Type III library school, may I construct a loophole through which I can later crawl, if necessary. It may be that events beyond our control will influence our action.

Five years of general and professional education have been prescribed for full professional standing. No one can say with any certainty, however, that the future economy of the United States can or will support public libraries at a level which will make five years of education a practicable requirement. At this moment, 26 per cent of the national income is collected in taxes. There is every indication that expenditures for the military establishment will be raised much higher and will remain high for many years.

As long as the national income remains high under inflationary influences, public libraries may be able to claim their share of the ever-increasing tax revenues. The first deflationary tide will bring trouble, though, and a real depression will be crippling. Under such conditions, it may be shown that we have priced librarianship out of the market. You may sometime hear me declare that we shall have to reduce our requirements and accept four years, as given in the Type III school, as the standard professional education.

## EDUCATION FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIANSHIP

### CONCLUSION

Education for librarianship is now undergoing its greatest change since the mid-twenties. If the new curricula which are now appearing actually reflected much of the preliminary discussion, public librarians would regard them with deep suspicion. The past two years have brought a rash of impractical ideas, partially obscured in esoteric phrases, seeming to indicate that the student must pass through a series of mental disciplines, but that he need learn very little about the operation of a library.

It may be that some of this discussion was intended only to impress the committees on graduate degrees. In any event, the curricula which have so far been published are much more closely related to the job at hand. Most of them include the groups of studies which we have here outlined as essential to the education of the public librarian.

There is still just enough evidence, however, of a purely theoretical atmosphere to warrant a word of caution from a public librarian of the ordinary garden variety. Background and fringe courses must be kept in balance—enough of them to give understanding and vision, but not enough to detract seriously from books, administration, and other courses of primary concern. One foot on the ground and one eye on the loan desk, is a good motto for the curriculum makers.

There is also evidence of an approach which seems to be deliberately pedantic. We are raising our first year of professional education to the graduate level, it is true, but there is no need to lose our way in a fog of academic gobbledygook. And let's not take ourselves too seriously!

The typical public library is not a seat of great scholarly output. It is an unpretentious, popular, grass-roots community agency. It is the library's responsibility to inspire the people to reach for new ideas, better understanding, and a richer life. The library must, then, always keep a step or two ahead of the people, but it must never lose sight of them, and it must always speak their language. The warmth of human understanding, not the chill learning of the scholar, is the public librarian's first qualification.

## Discussion

RICHARD B. SEALOCK

THIS PAPER is the realistic approach of a thoughtful, practical, and accomplished librarian. One must agree with most of his basic points. The suggested educational program must give the library a staff member who (1) is aware of his membership in an important profession; (2) is on the road to becoming a real bookman; (3) has developed a bibliographical sense; (4) has an interest in people and has developed a knowledge of their reading interests and abilities, and (5) has had an introduction to administrative problems (although this last will be qualified in a moment).

It is also agreed that the library schools may not always be able to control the college work of their students because of the enrollment of many students from other schools. On the other hand, it is conceivable that the emphasis of the last few years on a broader introductory college course will result in much better preparation.

I am disturbed, however, when considering the statements with regard to *trends in the public library movement*. The assertion, "the public library must devote the major part of its resources to satisfying the actual demands of its constituents," is unclear to me. It is necessary, of course, for the library to meet demands for individual book and information services. But the National Plan, The Public Library Inquiry, and the Graduate Library School program imply that the public libraries will exceed such limits in defining their functions. Above all, the public library will stress educational activities of a broad nature. If there is any despair in my mind now in regard to the effectiveness of the public library, it lies in our present failure to meet the challenge of community-wide adult education. Surely suitable techniques for community cooperation can be developed by libraries with the aid of library schools, and it is suggested that as a sample of this cooperation you watch the program being developed by Mr. Lancour and Mr. Goldhor at the Urbana, Illinois, public library.

Mr. Munn's acceptance of *the literature survey courses* does not meet with full approval since there is some danger that these will not go far enough. The public library's use of books does not follow

the strictly academic line. A wide range of books, particularly certain types of popular nonfiction, are used. These and others probably would not be introduced in such courses.

Emphasis on *administration* needs to be qualified as indicated earlier. Mr. Faust spoke of its "technician" aspects. In the larger library, its importance is recognized by the appointment of expert technicians, such as the building superintendent, business manager, financial officer, or personnel officer. In the smaller library, administration becomes less important. It is hoped that book courses and bibliography will not be slighted to permit too great an intrusion of administration for the general librarian. We want a community bookman, not a glorified administrator who might just as well be operating in another field.

Real disagreement comes when it is suggested that *advanced graduate work* is only for the few. Public libraries have been ineffective and mediocre at the reader-service level because staff members have failed to continue graduate study following some experience in adult guidance. Actually no library school now offers an adequate course that would lead to reader clinics in a public library and, in the long run, to truly effective adult education programs.

A discussion of *Type III schools* at this time may fail to recognize a trend away from this pattern. The Type III school gave a non-integrated program which frequently perpetuated the worst of the technical training of the other schools at the expense of general education. A great deal of this discussion arose two years ago because at least one state association was forced to replace an apprentice program which had three characteristics: (1) it was available and taken almost entirely by high school graduates; (2) it was given by the state library; and (3) it led to professional certification. This program helped to perpetuate ineffective library service in this state. It was felt that an introductory and integrated course at the state university would prove stronger than this apprentice program and would help to recruit many excellent candidates and to weed out the unfit. Employers need only construct proper classification plans for such four-year graduates and insist on graduate training for full standing to make this group a valuable portion of the personnel.

Finally, the junior college is a questionable agency for training *the staff of the small public library*, for the small community needs

the fully educated person. Such a community will be able to afford the superior person when it becomes a part of a regional library and shares the higher salary. Just as schools have found ways to uphold teacher standards in small towns, so must the public libraries, with the backing and support of the state library and certification board.

In *summary*, I should like to enumerate the following points:

1. There is a need for a public library with a more carefully defined sense of purpose.
2. There must be a more concentrated effort to meet the adult education challenge.
3. The library schools must be specific and thorough in the presentation of many materials useful in public library work.
4. Emphasis should be placed on administration only to the extent absolutely necessary.
5. There must be more graduate study by public service staff members.
6. And finally, there must be broad training for the librarian of the small community, who probably has even more varied tasks than staff members of a large library.

# Education for Academic Librarianship<sup>1</sup>

LAWRENCE CLARK POWELL

FOR A GOOD many years the library schools have been the whipping boys of the profession. Williamson gave it to them good back in 1923, followed by Reece, Munn, Mitchell, Metcalf, Butler, Carnovsky and others—a series of indictments, confessions, reforms, and reorientations blessed by the angel of the Carnegie Corporation. The results of this strange cycle were admirably summarized two years ago by Wheeler and Danton, in works titled with such words as “progress,” “problems,” “criticisms,” “dilemmas,” and “proposals.” Since agreeing a couple of months ago to prepare this paper, I have read much of the literature on education for librarianship and found it for the most part to be a dull and introverted proceeding, lightened too infrequently by the humanistic flashes of the three M’s: Munn, Mitchell, and Munthe. It is also a monotonous literature, unmarked by vigorous controversy. Even Chicago, the pioneering school of the reformation, has not sustained its official literature on the level set by Pierce Butler in his eloquent tract, *An Introduction to Library Science*, a book which has unfortunately gone out of print.

The recent decades have seen the library schools adjusting themselves to their new affiliations with academic institutions, and under new leadership they now seem ready to achieve integration with these institutions.

I came to the writing of this paper with a certain objectivity. My only association with a library school had been as a student in one for a year. Since then, I have tried to send my share of students along the road I took to gain the necessary certificate, and latterly as an administrator I have scuffled with my fellows for the cream of the yearly crop.

<sup>1</sup> Three members of my staff were of help to me in the writing of this paper. My thanks go to Barbara J. Cope, Everett T. Moore, and Robert G. Vosper.

I have indulged in a minimum of library school baiting. Only once did I succumb to temptation, in this paragraph written for the *California Library Bulletin*:

In conversation with the head of one of our western schools I was dismayed by his glib classification of the current class by their grade-point averages. I must confess ignorance as to which is better, a 1.6 or a 2.9 average. The latter is certainly the higher numerically. And we all know that six eggs make a better omelette than three. What we need is more librarians with good humor, good health, imagination, energy, and adaptability. Do these qualities correlate with grade-point averages?<sup>2</sup>

The bait was taken by one of the three Pacific Coast library-school directors for whom it was laid. He wrote me in spirited protest:

The trouble with what you wrote is that some people are going to take you completely seriously, whereas the fact is that you would be about the first and loudest squawker if a library school sent you a graduate with a poor upper story! I doubt that "good humor" correlates positively with a high grade-point average, but I'll bet that good health, imagination, and energy do!

So I come to you today as a librarian who in his dozen years of professional life has never taught a class or given a lecture in a library school, and who is employed in a university whose single library school is 400 miles distant. I am what is called a practitioner rather than a preacher, and yet I have come to regard myself as a participant in education for librarianship by such activities as counseling and recruiting undergraduates and orienting, training, and completing the education of new staff members.

I was deeply impressed by this statement by Munn:

That many promising young people coming from library schools full of initiative and enthusiasm are not given a chance to bring out their qualities of leadership is the fault of the libraries and not of the library schools. The first three months on the job are more important than the library school.<sup>3</sup>

I was so deeply impressed by this and by my own experience, that in

<sup>2</sup>"Academic Library Notes," in *Calif. Lib. Bull.*, IX (June 1948), 4.

<sup>3</sup>Ralph Munn, "Recruiting for the Undergraduate Library School," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXXV (1941), p. 132.

## EDUCATION FOR ACADEMIC LIBRARIANSHIP

my library we are conducting an orientation program for all new staff members in order to get them safely across the dangerous zone between theory and practice.

I shall not attempt any definitive or inclusive statement on library school curricula, a technical area in which I am less than a novice. I shall instead offer some notes drawn from my own limited experience, re-examined in the light of what I have learned from the reading mentioned earlier and from my observations on frequent visits to other libraries in various parts of the country.

All of this is by way of introduction. Let me now come to closer grips with my assignment by asking three questions and then attempting to answer them.

First, what kinds of librarians are needed by academic libraries? Second, are academic libraries getting the librarians they need? And third, what can be done by libraries and library schools to provide better for these needs?

### LIBRARIANS FOR ACADEMIC LIBRARIES

Before answering the first question, I must interpose another query: What are the functions of the college and the university library? One answer is that both are dedicated to the gathering of selective stocks of books and related materials, that the college library is primarily a teaching adjunct and the university library a research laboratory. To build collections and to use collections in teaching and research are the chief functions of academic libraries.

What sort of staff is needed to carry out these functions? First of all, some kind of administrative group is necessary. Should we look to library schools for administrators? Can library administration be taught? I would say that it can in principle, not in practice. And who is to teach the principles of library administration? Head librarians on temporary leave or those who have been permanently lured away from administration or personnel experts from other departments in the university—all three are possibilities. Columbia's new curriculum, as heralded in Danton's report and in writings by Carl White, should graduate librarians who will be apt candidates for administrative apprenticeships.

I must say, however, that I am not favorably impressed by the inexperienced, bright young librarian who is interested in "admin-



istration" to the exclusion of a preliminary mastery of the routine phases of library work. Good administrators are rare in any field of human activity, composed as they must be of aggressiveness and awareness in nicely matching amounts. The good executive sees minutiae with one eye, visions with the other. He is both galley slave and dreamer. Library schools should beware of the current fetish of "administration" as it is worshiped in certain other so-called schools of public administration. Once more I find myself turning to Munn's report for a common-sense paragraph to clinch my point:

It is nonsense to expect the one-year library school to train leaders and statesmen; it has to train librarians to know and use books, bibliographies and catalogs. The school can at most attempt to secure students who have innate qualities of leadership, take care not to repress these qualities through excessive demands of routine work, give some vision of the purpose and larger aspects of librarianship, and hope that in his early years of experience the graduate will have an opportunity to develop further his qualities of leadership.<sup>4</sup>

What about the need for the Ph.D. degree in academic librarianship? In the field of university library administration, I would place administrative ability as the first need, and as we all know, there is little or no correlation between it and scholarly ability. In the college library, where the administrative burdens are lighter and less complex, the Ph.D. is a more valuable asset, for it enables the librarian who holds it to teach on equal footing with the faculty.

If one of the library's chief functions is to build collections, then there is an urgent need for librarians who know books, how to evaluate them, and how to acquire them quickly and economically. Books must then be prepared for use. Catalog departments need librarians who can read foreign languages, who can get to the heart of a book without reading it through, and who can recognize the necessity of applying modern production methods to the rapid handling of large quantities of more or less standardized materials.

Then we need reference and subject specialists to serve students and faculty in all the areas of the curriculum: divisional reference rooms, departmental and graduate school collections, and special

<sup>4</sup>Ralph Munn, *Conditions and Trends in Education for Librarianship* (New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1936), p. 22-23.

collections of rare books, manuscripts, archives, maps, microfilms, tape and disc recordings, etc. Here it seems to me that the important qualification is subject knowledge and its corresponding degrees, plus some education in library history, organization, and techniques.

The circulation and shelving of books is increasingly regarded as subprofessional work, which should, however, be directed by one or more professional librarians endowed with superior ability in managerial and public relations work.

To function properly then, the academic library must be staffed by a corps of professional librarians with varying, not equal, amounts of graduate education—managers, collectors, processors, interpreters, and curators.

## ARE SUCH LIBRARIANS AVAILABLE?

Are academic libraries getting these kinds of librarians in the numbers required? We all know that they are not. There is a deficiency of superior candidates of every type. A single year of two semesters in a library school is hardly enough time in which to attain high levels, either of skill or knowledge. Nor does the new program in certain library schools of granting an M.S. in L.S. after a single year of graduate work strike me as likely to improve the situation. The University of California state-wide Library Council has gone on record as favoring an extra salary step for librarians entering the system who possess a Master's degree in addition to the ordinary fifth-year library school degree. The extra step may also be recommended for staff members attaining advanced degrees through in-service courses of study. The Council does not recognize this new type of M.S. in L.S. as qualifying the holder for extra salary recognition.

What are some *deficiencies in academic librarians*?

The first is to me the greatest: too few librarians suffer from the disease Dibdin called "bibliomania." We are paradoxically not a bookish profession. "Too busy to read" is our excuse, and it is a tragic one. To be sure, we do not need more dilettantes who "just love" books. Love is not enough. Give us librarians who have an overwhelming passion for books, who are bookmen by birth and by choice, by education, profession, and hobby. Properly channeled and directed, this passion for books is the greatest single basic asset a librarian can have.

Bibliomania is a passion capable also of refinement, offering the sufferer moments of exaltation and insight, such as this one described by an Englishman upon entering the library of the British Institute in Paris:

Inside the big room filled from end to end, from floor to ceiling with books, I move slowly over the polished floor, unwilling to cast the pebble of my entry into the deep pool of silence among the bent heads. The calm brows see nothing, busy with making of one private world. . . . And sitting there in the uninterrupted silence, I thought of all the people who had written those books piled so high in symmetrical layers cheek to cheek. They had poured out their hearts' blood, the anguish and the glory of something more than their minds, obeying blindly the call of the great inner voice that seems to sweep like a distant music through the air for those who can listen. An unending procession they were of skeletons now no more than an echo to be evoked through the strange deforming medium of the printed page. I saw their faces for a moment, wistful and uncertain if we, so far away in time and space, could understand. . . . Human communication, of the living with the living, of the dead with the living, is one of the great mysteries of this existence. Mankind is a strange chain of minds encircling the earth with one common consciousness, into which flow the thoughts and feelings of an immense number of other lives; he enjoys the freedom of centuries though himself the slave of time.<sup>5</sup>

Coming down to earth again, let us consider some other deficiencies in the several kinds of academic librarians. Bibliographers or collection builders in order and acquisition departments too rarely are bookmen with a feeling for the book as artifact and a knowledge of its content. They are not familiar enough with the international book trade, or with the history of bookbuying and bookselling, or with the roles of bookseller, librarian, and faculty in the growth of library collections.

Catalogers fresh from library school (when they can be had) have not enough interest in anything but codes and subject headings. Knowledge of the history of cataloging and classification, of the modern viewpoint of cataloging as assembly line, and of the relation of the catalog department to the other library departments and to the students and faculty, is pitifully absent in neophyte catalogers. Too often they take an almost religious view of cataloging as an end in itself.

<sup>5</sup> Wrey Gardiner, *A Season of Olives* (London: Grey Walls, 1948).

As for reference and subject specialists, I prefer them to come with one graduate year in library school plus a Master's degree gained from another year in specialization. To offset the present scarcity of such candidates, a library should allow in-service graduate study for its members whose work can be improved by intensive study, research, and thesis writing. Catalogers in all but the largest university library departments do not appear to improve their work and increase their output by further subject specialization; and in the large department the cataloger's assignment will dictate whether or not he should pursue in-service work, particularly in languages.

The ability of a librarian to achieve an advanced degree, or the mere interest in doing so, may indicate an effective concern with the essential work of the university or college and in the problems faced by the teaching and research faculty. A desperate need exists for more librarians who have knowledge and interests of the same kinds as the faculty. On every academic library staff I have any acquaintance with, I can count on a few fingers the number of persons who can establish intellectual camaraderie with the faculty. Until this can be done by the majority of a staff, talk of equal rank with the faculty is a waste of breath.

Two more deficiencies in academic librarians are the inability to make concise written reports on library operations and to report orally in departmental and staff meetings. The ability to communicate ideas by writing and speaking is an invaluable skill which is useful on all levels of librarianship, from junior member, through department head, to chief executive. Such skills in organization and presentation are partly native, partly acquired. Most library meetings (I trust this one is an exception) are depressed by papers and reports poorly written and spoken and of excessive length.

## WHAT CAN BE DONE?

What can be done to overcome these various deficiencies in both quantity and quality? I am certain that the chief responsibility is that of the library and not of the library school. If the academic library is not getting enough properly qualified people to carry out its functions with complete effectiveness, it is in an admirable position to do something about it. Library schools derive most of their recruits directly from the campuses. The library is the heart of the campus,

numbering among its clients, at one time or another, every superior student in attendance at the institution. What an opportunity to make converts in this proselyter's paradise!

The first step is to impress upon the staff the importance of recruiting, and then of their individual and collective responsibility in interesting students in librarianship as a career. Here are excerpts from a memo on this subject which I addressed to my staff:

Staff members should remember that our profession does not automatically perpetuate itself. A good measure of a library—and of each department in that library—is the number of students or clericals it has recruited for Librarianship. Each of you should ask yourself the question, What have I done and what am I doing toward peopling my profession? Here on this metropolitan campus, which draws young men and women from every state in the union, is abundant material. Every student who works for us is a potential librarian.

The best recruits are those who are inspired by the librarians for whom they work to see in Librarianship a dynamic service profession. "Love of books" is not enough. Offer no refuge to the escapist; discourage the dilettante; pity the spiritual misfit, but close the door to the maladjusted. Librarianship holds no magic therapy. Its successful practice calls for normal (not average) men and women. Good health, good nature, good sense—look for these qualities.

We do not wish to recruit students all of one type. Keep the varied aspects of our work in mind when you are sizing up a prospect. Neither pure extrovert nor introvert makes the best librarian; most of us are hybrids, and properly so.

What else can be done to interest the student in librarianship? The first thing obviously is to operate an efficient library, to serve the student with promptness and good humor. It may be that librarians are most effective as recruiting agents when they are the least conscious of making an effort. Natural charm and friendliness, allied with efficiency, are great and rare virtues, but they can be encouraged and developed and made to flourish. This kind of courteous service should be extended initially to all library users, from the callow freshman to the sophisticated full professor. It is a wonderful thing to experience and once seen is never forgotten.

Let me insert here a personal anecdote involving the head reference

librarian in a university not far from Boston. I first visited the library when attending the American Library Association conference in 1941. I introduced myself as a junior member of the staff of a western library. A year ago I returned, this time as a head librarian. The initial welcome extended me as an obscure staff member from a far-away place was indistinguishable from that I received some years later when I returned on an official mission as the head of a library engaged in a joint project. I shall never forget this lesson in courteous hospitality regardless of rank.

The new student can be reached even before he enters the library by presenting him at registration time with a library handbook containing a welcoming foreword and hints on the use and enjoyment of the library. The student government can be encouraged to form a library committee, which will meet regularly with a library representative to discuss ways and means of improving library-student relationships.

A next step is to see that the student assistants employed in the library are first of all hand-picked from the large panel of applicants, then made welcome and given good training, fair wages, and promotional opportunities. I make it a point to get to know as many as possible of the students, at least by face and name, but this is not easy when more than a hundred are working at different hours of day and night. To each new student employee, at his home, I mail a letter of welcome—which says in part:

It is important that you realize your responsibility in helping us give friendly and efficient service to all who use the Library.

Remember that the entire Library may be judged by your performance. Be cheerful and pleasant to everyone. When off duty explain the Library's problems to students in your living groups.

We want the Library to excel in service. I am counting on each one of you to see that we don't let anyone down. If you have to give a patron a negative answer, do it with a smile.

Those of you who work in the Processing Departments are indispensable in helping speed books and pamphlets and magazines through for circulation and reference use. An unlisted item is of no use whatsoever to the public.

If you see ways in which our services and procedures can be improved, tell the librarians in your department.

## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

I hope too that you will find more than a job in your work. Librarianship can be a stimulating and rewarding profession, offering a socially useful and varied career to young men and women. If you have not yet chosen your work, you may want to consider Librarianship. Any of the staff will be glad to counsel you at any time.

An effort can also be made to reach into the secondary schools and establish contact with the librarians there. We have addressed letters to them, asking that they call our attention to any of their graduates entering the university who may be interested in library work as a career and offering to counsel them at registration time.

Another effective recruiting device is an annual vocational conference on librarianship, to which are invited students and student and clerical employees, secondary school librarians and their student employees, and vocational counselors in the high schools and junior colleges.

The clerical or subprofessional group, which may form up to 50 per cent of the full-time staff, is another fertile field for recruiting which should be recognized and systematically worked.

Wilhelm Munthe in his brilliant book, *American Librarianship from a European Angle*,<sup>6</sup> urges that libraries be their own chief recruiting agencies and he advocates an apprentice system in order to ensure grounding in library techniques before the student enters library school.

When I sought a formula for successful librarianship, I found most satisfying this one contained in Munn's report. "It is," he says, "to a great extent dependent upon (a) general education with especial emphasis upon a wide knowledge of books; (b) common sense and other personal traits; and (c) a relatively small amount of special library technique."<sup>7</sup> All I would add to this is a further year or two of graduate training in subject fields for academic and special library work.

### PREPROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS

There is general agreement that the best prelibrarianship education should be broad, liberal, and general. "But what constitutes such a general education?" asks a recent writer, and goes on to say that

<sup>6</sup> Chicago: A.L.A., 1939.

<sup>7</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 17.

"Little, if any, attempt has been made to describe it in very concrete terms."<sup>8</sup>

We have attempted a concrete answer at the University of California at Los Angeles in the recently announced undergraduate Curriculum in Prelibrarianship. Inasmuch as there has been as yet no account of this Curriculum published in library periodicals, I shall seize the opportunity presented by this paper briefly to describe its purpose and content.

The opportunity to introduce the new program came when a strong movement for a general curriculum reform was being successfully led by a progressive faculty group. With a bit of navigating through channels, we librarians succeeded in getting our own little boat under way and into clear water. A committee was appointed by the dean of the College of Letters and Science to prepare a curriculum for undergraduates intending to pursue librarianship as a career. This membership included the librarian, the chairman of the faculty library committee (a biochemist), and faculty representatives from languages and literature, social sciences, and applied arts. Next came a subcommittee of the librarian and several of the library staff who had shown an aggressive interest in recruiting; and a report was recommended, discussed, modified, and finally adopted. The librarian is named as being in charge of preregistration advisers and he in turn has appointed his staff subcommittee as advisers. This curriculum is now entering its second year and promises to be highly successful. The General Catalogue of the University describes it as follows:

The Prelibrarianship Curriculum is designed to meet the needs of students who plan to pursue a general course in a graduate library school. The requirements of library schools and the demands of the profession indicate the desirability of a broad background in liberal arts subjects for students who plan to enter the general field of public and university library work.

Students who intend to specialize in scientific, industrial, or other technical fields of librarianship should complete a major in the appropriate subject under the direction of the department concerned, rather than pursue the Prelibrarianship Curriculum. Students primarily interested in public-school librarianship are advised to complete the requirements for

<sup>8</sup> Harold Lancour, "New Training Pattern Looks Good," in *Library Journal*, LXXIII (1948), 686.



## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

a general teaching credential as described in the *Announcement of the School of Education*.

To be admitted to the Prelibrarianship Curriculum a student must file a "Prelibrarianship Plan" which has been approved by an authorized Library Adviser, and which meets the following general requirements:

- (1) One year in each of two of the following languages: French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish.
- (2) Lower division courses:
  - (a) Requirements of the College of Letters and Science.
  - (b) Prerequisites for upper division courses selected by the student.
  - (c) Recommended electives:

Astronomy 1	Geology 2
Bacteriology 6	Economics 40
Biology 1	English 1B, 31, 36A-36B
Botany 1A	Philosophy 2A-2B
Chemistry 2	Physics 10
  - (d) Ability to type is recommended by many library schools and is generally recognized as an asset to the professional librarian.
- (3) Upper division courses: At least 36 upper division units chosen from the fields listed below, with no less than 12 units in one field, and no less than 6 units in each of four other fields. The particular choice of courses should be determined by the student in consultation with a library adviser on the basis of the student's individual interest and needs.

The recommended fields are as follows:

- I Art and Music
  - II Education
  - III English and American Literature
  - IV Foreign Language and Literature
  - V History, Economics, and Political Science
  - VI Psychology, Anthropology, and Sociology.
- Some 75 elective courses are listed in these six fields.

Here, then, are some concrete things an academic library can do toward bringing into the professional schools better qualified people.

## RESPONSIBILITY OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS

What is the responsibility of the library schools in training these recruits? I must confess again that this is an area of meager experience

for me. Some of the curricula reforms now taking place in library schools will have good results. I am not ready, however, to endorse those curricula which seek to commence professional training before the student has completed a course in general education. I believe that professional standards will be undermined and salaries lowered by the loosing of a horde of culturally immature technicians.

The schools need to improve their public relations. The faculty should come into closer contact with practicing librarians and bookmen. There is not enough intellectual traffic between library school faculty and librarians, except in those institutions where the school and the library administration are one—and then perhaps there is too much. The Illinois weekly colloquium is an admirable plan by which the students and faculty become acquainted with, and participate in, discussions led by outstanding persons in the library profession and the book world. Students training for academic librarianship would benefit from a similar colloquium which would familiarize them with the workings of the university or college apart from the library.

Library-school literature is emerging from a twilight of dull statement and drab typographical dress. The new Columbia announcement is a delightful example of the "new look" in library literature.

The western United States with its widely separated oases of culture would benefit from conferences such as this, which blend theory and practice into closer harmony. May the wings of the foundation angel reach to the Rockies and beyond!

Another kind of isolationism has been increased by the shortage of librarians. This is the placement of most of a school's graduates in the region in which the school is located. My own staff is a case in point. Of a total of sixty professional members, forty-four are graduates of California and Southern California. Sixteen are graduates of thirteen other American library schools. I deplore this inbreeding in my own and in other libraries. In order to provide more varied and comparative experience for librarians, we need to consummate exchanges of personnel with both foreign and domestic libraries. The invigorating life of a critically minded profession comes from members who have worked and studied and investigated in many libraries.

In closing, I will venture the opinion that a library school should be a place of intense intellectual radiation as well as a technical

depot, a kind of station where in addition to an acquaintance with techniques the student is charged with high ideals, wide culture, and deep humility before he goes out to practice what has been taught. Teaching of this quality can only come from men and women who are seasoned and mellow, experienced and tolerant. When we look back on our library school year we are apt to recall it in memories of the teachers themselves, not of the courses they gave. Mitchell and Coulter symbolize California to those who were privileged to study with those two rare persons; and every other school in the land which lives in the memory of its students does so by its teachers—its Deweys, Windsors, Bishops, and Wilsons—not by its curricula. What we must have if librarianship is to come of age is a great many more practicing librarians of strong character, wide culture, and active idealism.

## *Discussion*

B. LAMAR JOHNSON

MR. POWELL brings to his presentation of "Education for Academic Librarianship" the background of a university librarian. I do not mean to imply that he has omitted the college library from consideration, for he has not. On the contrary, I bring to my discussion a background of college librarianship. My experience in university libraries has largely been limited to my use of them as a faculty member and as a graduate student. It will be useful to know these contrasting backgrounds in order to interpret my comments.

In my remarks I shall have three purposes in mind: (1) to identify several suggestions made by the speaker with which I agree; by stating these recommendations I shall perhaps be re-emphasizing them; (2) to identify one point on which Mr. Powell and I disagree; and (3) to comment on an emphasis which I believe to be important, but to which the speaker has given scant attention.

First, then, points of agreement. I was pleased to note the emphasis on recruiting for librarianship. Certainly, if we fail to recruit qualified candidates, our education for academic librarianship will be fruitless.

## EDUCATION FOR ACADEMIC LIBRARIANSHIP

As the speaker pointed out, we do need librarians who know books. In my own thinking, I expand that recommendation to library materials. Since I regard the academic library as the resource center for almost all types of instructional materials, I would include in the term "library materials" not only books and other printed matter, but also recordings, film strips, motion pictures, etc.

In our college and university libraries, we also need librarians whose scholarship is unquestioned—men and women who can establish intellectual camaraderie with the faculty.

I, too, would like to see librarians trained in practicing the art of communications to the extent that they can make concise written reports and oral ones. I would perhaps hope that this effectiveness in communication would affect all parts of the librarian's work.

Finally, I was pleased to note that Mr. Powell does not assign the job of training librarians to the library school and then forget it. In Mr. Powell we have a library administrator who accepts the responsibility and grasps the opportunity of providing additional training for the librarians who join his staff. He specifically refers to the orientation program for new staff members "to get them safely across the dangerous zone between theory and reality." Although he does not stress it, I am confident that Mr. Powell believes in and practices in-service training even after the period of orientation is completed. This, to me, is important.

On all of these emphases, and on others which I might mention, Mr. Powell and I agree.

## IMPORTANCE OF ACADEMIC LIBRARY

Now, however, I turn to a statement made by the speaker with which I cannot agree. It is this: "The library is the heart of the campus." This assertion in my judgment represents wishful thinking. I sometimes question whether the library has yet attained the dignity of becoming even the tonsils or the little finger of the American college and university. I believe the library *should* be the heart of the college. What I am saying is simply this: the evidence which is available indicates, if I interpret it correctly, that the library has not yet by any stretch of the imagination become the heart of the American college. Branscomb's summary of the studies of the use (or perhaps I should say lack of use) made of the library by

undergraduate students presents some shocking facts. Exclusive of reserve books, the average undergraduate borrows twelve books per year from the general collection. The current issue of *College and Research Libraries* reports data which are not much more encouraging. Just the other day, I was shown a report that indicates that the average inmate of Statesville penitentiary in this state reads sixty-six books per year—and yet I have heard no suggestion that the library is the heart of the American penitentiary.

You will also recall Branscomb's presentation of data which suggest that there is little relationship between the use of the library by college students and their scholarship as indicated by grades. Following his presentation of data regarding the lack of relationship between grades and the use of the library, Branscomb states:

One comes back to this removedness of class work from the library. What is it due to? Is it the physical separation of the books over in "the library," while teaching goes on elsewhere? Or does the primary factor lie in the nature of class organization of instruction which throws the emphasis inevitably upon the utterances of the sage in charge? One does not need to debate the issue between these or other alternatives. The fact which confronts one is that the library is not functioning in close and vital connection with the teaching program. . . . The ideational form in which this general academic inertia . . . has expressed itself has been the concept of the library as a depository of knowledge. Reservoirs of knowledge are badly needed and certain national and university libraries serve society greatly by performing this function. The college library can rarely and does not usually need to undertake this expensive role. Books in the library are useless unless they are used, and in a college this means primarily used for the teaching purpose for which the institution exists.<sup>1</sup>

And this leads me to my final point. The amount and quality of use made of an academic library depends in large measure on the kind of teaching done by the faculty. I can assemble outstanding book collections; I can be a scholar, a lover of books; I can have an ample, well-trained library staff. All of these I can have, and still the library will be relatively inconsequential on the campus if the faculty does not make effective use of library materials in its teaching.

Accordingly, in educating a librarian for academic librarianship,

<sup>1</sup> Harvie Branscomb, *Teaching With Books* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1940), p. 53.

I would wish to give a place of central importance to an understanding of the college curriculum, an insight into teaching problems, an awareness of various successful methods of using library materials in teaching, and an understanding of how the library and the library staff can influence teaching.

Perhaps at this point someone may suggest: "But Mr. Johnson, remember your background of college librarianship—you must be referring only to college libraries. The situation is different in universities. The university library is essentially a research library." To this I would answer, "No, I am referring to both college and university libraries. In universities, libraries must also be related to teaching."

Just yesterday I visited with the librarian of a university which has an enrollment of more than twenty thousand students. In this university, nine out of ten students are undergraduates and three out of five are junior college students. This is not at all unusual. A goodly percentage of our universities have more students in the freshman and sophomore years than in all the rest of the student body, both graduate and undergraduate combined.

Yes, the university librarian must be concerned with the relationship of the library to undergraduate instruction—just as is his brother in the college library. If our university libraries simply build up reservoirs of books for research, there is a grave danger that university librarians will be contributing to making the university undergraduate the forgotten man of American education.

In closing, I should like to requote a statement by Branscomb: "Books in the library are useless unless they are used, and in a college this means primarily for the teaching purpose for which the institution exists." With this statement in mind, I urge that in our education for academic librarianship we aim to develop librarians who are scholars, librarians who know library materials, librarians who are educators, and librarians who are teachers and leaders of teachers. When we do this, we shall be laying the best possible foundation for making the academic library what Mr. Powell and all the rest of us want it to become—the heart of the campus.

# Education for Library Service to Children and Youth

RUTH ERSTED

IT HAS LONG been one of the joys of all library school graduates to discuss the inadequacies of their professional training. Whether they are administrators, reference librarians, or order department assistants, librarians usually feel entirely competent to talk about this subject.

Occasionally, it is also a topic for discussion and study by organizations of librarians other than those actively engaged in professional education, as in the case of the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People of the American Library Association. This Division has established a Committee on Education for Library Work with Children and Young People, and detailed plans have been drawn for subcommittees to investigate ten major areas of the subject.

In any planning program for the education of librarians working with youth (and the Committee hopes to produce a program of this type as its final piece of work), it is necessary to know the present professional curricula and the proposed curricular changes of the library schools and other training agencies. One group of this Committee will work on a survey of existing programs of basic professional education for all librarians working with children and young people. A second group has completed the collection of data on present-day certification practices and other requirements for this same group of librarians.

General and basic professional education are being studied by librarians in the three fields of children's, young people's, and school library work. It is their aim to determine objectively what the scope and content of education for these groups of librarians should be and to formulate such a planning program as would be necessary for the implementation of a scheme of education based on the evidence obtained.

## EDUCATION FOR SERVICE TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Other subcommittees are at work on the relationship of professional education for children's and young people's librarians to the professional education of other types of librarians; on graduate study; on in-service training; and on the content of the library and its resources in teacher-training programs. An analysis of the literature in the field has been completed for material appearing before 1946.

The following statements represent some of the major hypotheses which this Committee is investigating:

1. That librarians working with children and young people do not need training completely distinct and separate from that of other types of librarians.
2. That librarians working with children and young people, whether in schools or in public libraries, should have the same professional education.
3. That professional education for librarians working with children and young people should begin as an undergraduate major, like professional education for teachers.
4. That in the case of school librarians the dichotomy of training for teacher-librarians and for professional librarians should be discontinued.
5. That training in the library and its resources should be required in the education of teachers.
6. That librarians working with children and young people need courses in the fields of reading, psychology, curriculum, and related content in the area of education.

It is the purpose of this paper to inquire into these hypotheses, to show how the Committee is collecting information about them, to indicate the tendencies revealed to date in one particular part of the study (the education of school librarians), and occasionally to view these problems as they appear to a state school library supervisor. Unfortunately, it is not possible to include any findings from the two subcommittees on education for librarians working with children and with young people in public libraries, since these have but recently begun their work. However, the tentative results obtained from the school-library investigation and their implications in these areas have been discussed with the two librarians in charge of the other studies, as well as with the children's and young people's librarians from two large public library systems.



## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

### ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE

Analysis of the literature on the education and preparation of librarians working with youth, one of the projects most nearly completed by the Committee, deals primarily with the period of 1936 to 1946. (Material published later has not yet been analyzed.) The bibliography includes 134 articles and books, less than two-thirds of which were published after 1936. Half of the publications that are listed for this decade were general articles on library education that contained some mention of specific training for librarians working with youth. Parenthetically, it should be noted that some major studies, such as those by Wheeler and Danton, practically exclude consideration of this particular area. Forty-two publications dating from 1936 dealt almost entirely with education for librarians working with youth; of these, thirty-eight were devoted to school and teacher-librarians, nine to children's librarians, and five to librarians working with young people in public libraries. Many of the publications are wholly subjective in character, representing the opinion of one or more individuals; others are based on studies or surveys made by committees or groups; and the remaining few represent the results of systematic research.<sup>1</sup>

The problems indicated most frequently in the literature on the professional education of school librarians are the amount of training needed for school librarians, teacher-librarians, and teachers; which institutions of higher education should provide for this specialization; when it should be given within a four- or a five-year college program; and the subject matter to be emphasized.

The solutions offered are many and varied. The answers to be found in the standards of the American Association of School Librarians published by the American Library Association under the title *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*, deserve particular mention since they represent the currently accepted national standards of the school library group. A summary of the major recommendations

<sup>1</sup> Two landmarks in the literature on education for school librarianship are:

Lucile Foster Fargo, *Preparation for School Library Work*, Columbia University Studies in Library Service, No. 3 (New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1936).

Joint Committee of the American Library Association, *How Shall We Educate Teachers and Librarians for Library Service in the Schools?* Findings and recommendations with a library science curriculum for teachers and teacher-librarians (New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1936).

about the education and preparation of school librarians includes an organized college program of 30-36 semester hours of library science, with emphasis on the selection and use of books suited to the needs of boys and girls. The desirability of a five-year program and the necessity for courses in professional education are noted. For the teacher-librarians, the standards call for "no less than 12-18 semester hours (18-24 quarter hours) of library science with emphasis on books and their use in elementary and secondary school programs. These library credits must represent an organized program. . . . The training . . . may well be the responsibility of teacher-training institutions."<sup>2</sup>

For the children's librarians, the literature shows that one year in an accredited library school appears to be the recognized standard of education for children's librarians, but several writers have concerned themselves with the need for additional training in such related fields as psychology, child study, sociology, and the problems of adolescence. "The general trend in preparation for librarianship in the children's field is to acquire a knowledge of books, a knowledge of children, and a knowledge of present-day social and educational tendencies."<sup>3</sup> Two of the related problems noted in connection with children's library work in public libraries include the lack of understanding of this field by library administrators and the ways and means of cooperating with the schools. It is possible that both of these have implications for programs of professional education for more than children's librarians; they may apply to the preparation of other librarians as well.

For librarians working with young people in public libraries, a college education and a year of library school have been considered the necessary prerequisites, with emphasis placed on book knowledge and adolescent psychology.

In summarizing the problems which have appeared in print about the education of librarians working with children and young people, the author of the analysis lists the following ideas as those representing viewpoints which seem to appear most frequently:

<sup>2</sup> American Library Association, *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1945), p. 18.

<sup>3</sup> Blanche Janeczek, *An Analysis of the Literature on the Education and Preparation of Librarians Who Work with Youth* (University of Chicago, Graduate Library School, 1946; Typewritten report for A.L.A. Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, Committee on Education, Frances Henne, Chairman).

## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

1. Librarians working with children and young people in schools or in public libraries need 30-36 semester hours of professional education.
2. Professional library schools are best qualified to offer the necessary preparation for the full-time school librarian.
3. Courses in the existing library schools should be revised to prepare the school librarian more adequately for his profession.
4. To prepare the teacher-librarian and to give library education to the teacher and the school administrator should be the obligation and task of the teachers' colleges.
5. A wide knowledge of books for boys and girls and the ability to fit books to readers should be emphasized in the courses for all prospective librarians who work with youth.
6. A background knowledge of children's literature is necessary for librarians working with adolescents.

These points of view have not yet been wholly accepted as providing the final answers. Many of the above statements, or the ideas behind them, are to be found in the hypotheses already stated as illustrations of the major problems still in need of systematic, objective investigation.

### BASIC PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The first hypothesis, "That librarians working with children and young people do not need training completely distinct and separate from that of other types of librarians," is directed toward that basic body of professional knowledge which may be presumed to be the foundation for all librarianship. It does not refer to any of the areas of specialization in professional library education.

Two problems present themselves immediately. What content of professional education is most needed and used in the librarian's daily work? What can be defined as essential and desirable as a professional background, regardless of the extent of its daily use?

In the study presently being made in the school library field by the Division Committee, a check list of library course content has been prepared. School librarians are being asked to check each item and to indicate whether each technique or type of knowledge is used daily, once a week, about once a month, a few times a year, once a year, or not at all. In addition they are asked to indicate where their training for each item was obtained, whether it was adequate or inadequate, and the reasons behind their appraisal of adequacy or inadequacy.

Only school librarians known to be doing very good work have been selected.

While less than half of the results have been collected and tabulated, it is possible at this time to give some indication of the patterns that are emerging. The analysis of the types of information or knowledge used daily plainly reveals "books" and "readers" to be in the lead. Reading guidance, including interests and abilities of readers; the selection of materials for special groups; and cooperation with teachers in the selection of materials clearly rank highest in frequency of use, together with a variety of information about the content of both children's and adolescents' literature. Other types of knowledge in constant employment include informal methods for teaching the use of the library; planning and directing the work of student assistants; the use of magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and flat pictures; cataloging, classification, and processing; and publicity. As would be expected, most of the items relate specifically to the field of specialization of the school librarian, but by no means all of them.

What, then, about the more general content of librarianship? A completely acceptable definition for a core program of librarianship apparently is still to come. For this paper, we may adopt one given by Frank N. Freeman, Dean of the College of Education, University of California, Berkeley, at a meeting of the American Library Association Division of Library Education in San Francisco. "Core curriculum" refers to those items of general education or those forms of general education which are common to everybody. So, if we applied it in that way to the professional curriculum for librarianship, it would, I think, include all those features of librarians' activities which are common to all librarians. It would deal, in other words, with those things which are useful for a librarian who has charge of a small library . . . or to a school librarian or to a special librarian with special duties in a large city library or a large university library."<sup>4</sup>

It is difficult, at least for a layman, to determine to what extent any of the core programs as described in library school catalogs meet this definition. (It is even more difficult to determine how similar the courses are in content.) But assume that all of the core programs deal with the place of the library in society; some general admin-

<sup>4</sup> See Ruth Fine's minutes, San Francisco Proceedings, in *A.L.A. Bulletin* XLI (Sept. 15, 1947), 49.

istrative patterns; and an introduction to books, their selection, interpretation, organization, and use. Is this material needed by librarians working with children and young people? The analysis which the school librarians are making of their need for professional course content indicates that it is, although the demand for some of the more general library subjects is not emerging as a daily one.

The opinion of experts is also something the Committee wants to take into consideration before reaching any conclusions. Such prominent authorities on children's books as Frances Clarke Sayers, Gladys English, and Lillian Smith, all agree that appreciation, understanding, and knowledge of good writing for adults are mandatory for anyone evaluating literature for boys and girls. There is little doubt that other experienced librarians for children and young people would subscribe to the desirability of having some knowledge of the development and functions of the processes of communication and of libraries in society.

In conclusion, the information available at this time from one of the Division's studies appears to indicate sufficient use and need of general, basic professional content to substantiate the value to school librarians of a core program. The length and content and time of introduction will be less easy to resolve.

### CONTENT OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANS WORKING WITH YOUTH

The second hypothesis, "That librarians working with children and young people, whether in schools or in public libraries, should have the same professional education," is based on two primary assumptions. (1) The object of all library service for children and young people is inevitably the same—it is the child. This sounds too simple to mention and also too obvious, but there is some evidence to support the statement that it has frequently been pushed in the background. An examination of the professional literature for librarians working with youth, for instance, reveals that we often ask what does the librarian need, or what does the library need, and all too seldom, what does the child need? (2) The objectives of library service to children and youth are the same for all libraries, regardless of the kinds of institutions in which they are located. We are all seeking to give children a variety of library experience, whether this

means training them in habits of using libraries, helping them to have an appreciation of the best in our cultural heritage, furnishing them with reference tools to answer questions connected with specific assignments for their school work, or providing them with some of the materials to answer their leisure-time needs.

For the sake of argument, let us assume that it is necessary for one reason or another to have separate courses in children's, young people's, and school library work. Would anyone maintain that the well-trained librarian working with youth does not need all three of them? Of course there are a few differences in the work of different types of institutions, but the body of professional library knowledge needed by the young people's librarian in each of these institutions appears to be almost the same.

The Committee's check list of the use made of the content of library courses, which was prepared for the use of school librarians, has also been given to a few librarians working with children and young people in public libraries. Conclusive evidence is not available yet, but the present returns show a high correlation between the subjects in most demand by school librarians and by librarians working with youth in public libraries. There are some exceptions. In public library systems of any size, the order department usually processes all books, and this accounts for only a few checks by children's librarians for such items as the ordering or marking of books. Planning and directing the work of student assistants is seldom the responsibility of anyone but the school librarian. But for the most part their requirements are the same.

There is an additional factor here of importance. The Division project on the Education of School Librarians has asked the respondents to indicate how often they have need for a knowledge of public library-school library relations, public library services to adults, and public library administration. All but the last item has been checked as being used daily, once a week, or about once a month, except by the teacher-librarians in two small towns without public libraries. About half the replies indicate that the information received in library school was inadequate. Is it not possible that the cooperation between these two agencies would be greater if children's, young people's, and school librarians had all received the same professional education?

## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

### PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM

The third hypothesis states, "That professional education for librarians working with children and young people should begin as an undergraduate major, like professional education for teachers." In 1946 Margaret Rufsvold said: "The trend toward delaying all professional library training until the fifth year of college, with little or no provision for preprofessional preparation or introductory exploratory courses at the undergraduate level, places library work in an unfavorable position as compared with that of professions which recruit, select, and eliminate students systematically throughout the four years of college."<sup>5</sup>

Today the trend appears to be in the opposite direction: twenty-one accredited library schools (out of a total of thirty-six) include professional training on the undergraduate level. Two colleges, the New York State Teachers College at Geneseo and the New Jersey College for Women, even go so far as to start professional training in the freshman and sophomore years, on the ground that the "longer period of close faculty and student relationships gives better opportunity for effective guidance" and that the "immediate enrolment in library courses for freshmen allows any interest they may have in librarianship to become strengthened at once."<sup>6</sup>

The most serious and persistent criticism of the inclusion of professional library education in the undergraduate program is the claim that it prevents the student from getting the broad, liberal education which provides the best preprofessional background for librarianship. If it is possible to build a five-year program which leads to a Master's degree and includes approximately one year of professional library education, part of which is given in the undergraduate program, it seems difficult to say that the amount of time allowed for liberal arts courses is decreasing. Such an arrangement would prevent concentration of library education in one year and would also make it possible for the library school to help the student plan a program of related subjects which are needed as background information for library work. The final answer to this complicated problem is certainly dependent upon results obtained from research studies, and

<sup>5</sup> Margaret Rufsvold, "Recruitment and Library Training," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XL (May 1946), 152.

<sup>6</sup> Association of American Library Schools, *Newsletter*, 1 (June 1948), p. 11.

## EDUCATION FOR SERVICE TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH

the Division Committee on Education hopes to be able to make some contribution.

In addition to its check list of library course content, the Division study of education for school librarians is using a check list on academic course content. Participants are being asked to indicate how often this content is used in library work and also to state whether the academic training they obtained was adequate or inadequate for their needs. The results available at this time (and they are admittedly limited) seem to show the need for some information about many subjects. There is little demand for a knowledge of foreign languages and the mathematical sciences, although most of the librarians had some training in both fields. The need for a knowledge of the other sciences ranks high, but relatively few people felt adequately prepared in many of them. There were further reports of inadequacies in economics, political science, philosophy, the fine arts, technology, Asiatic history, and geography.

A possible conclusion is that librarians working with children and young people should be urged to take basic and general survey courses in social science, natural science, and the humanities. It is apparent, even without the completion of the Division analysis of the use of academic course content, that school librarians have need for some information about many subjects. Two other deductions seem equally apparent: students need more guidance in the selection of liberal arts courses, and the librarian working with youth should have professional training in education which includes such courses as the psychology of children and adolescents. Superior library service to children and young people demands a closely integrated knowledge of both fields.

## PROFESSIONAL TRAINING FOR THE TEACHER-LIBRARIAN

Hypothesis four states, "That, in the case of school librarians, the dichotomy of training for teacher-librarians and professional librarians should be discontinued." There is no validity in the reasoning which claims that the librarian in the small school needs to know less than the one serving in a large city system.

The requirements which call for less training for the teacher-librarian have developed in a manner quite understandable. The smaller school wanted, or was required to have, someone in charge of



the library. While a full-time librarian was not regarded as necessary, it was possible to relieve one teacher of a class or two and to ask him to serve in this capacity. The desirability of some library training for this teacher was admitted, yet to ask a college graduate with a major in English and one or two subject minors to return to college for an additional year of professional training in order to serve for a few periods a day in the library was regarded as impractical. It still is. There may be something to be said for this point of view by those who insist that it is the only approach to the question, but there are others who maintain that this traditional pattern is obsolete and that our present need is for a thorough examination of the subject in terms of the school library of today.

Fundamentally there are two problems here: service patterns and training. We need to develop regional units for school library service, in which one trained person serves several small schools, but this is a problem for school administrators and school library supervisors, and not for library schools. We also need to provide the kind of training needed by the teacher or the librarian in order to provide good service, and this is the responsibility of the library schools. All that remains is to determine what is needed!

The Division Committee's study on school librarians is one attempt to find some of the answers. Teacher-librarians as well as school librarians are taking part in this study, and an examination of the present returns of one of the check lists reveals no discernible difference in the type of library course content used most frequently by these two groups. During the few hours a day when the teacher-librarian is on duty, his primary demands are for information about books and readers. Teaching the use of the library and training student assistants are also of as much importance to the part-time librarian as to the one who devotes the entire day to this work. Again we can also say that the objectives of all library service to children and young people remain the same regardless of the number of children to be served or the kinds of institutions in which they are located.

#### LIBRARY COURSES FOR TEACHERS

The fifth hypothesis states, "That training in the library and its resources should be required in the education of teachers." The idea behind this statement has occasionally brought the charge that we

were attempting to train all teachers to be organizers and administrators of school libraries. This is not true. Nor is there an air of smugness about the statement, since it is just as important for school librarians to be informed about educational objectives and procedures as it is to have the teacher acquire a knowledge of materials and of libraries and how they both function in the instructional program.

For several years, educational leaders and curriculum specialists have affirmed the statement that good teaching demands the use of a variety of materials. It would be folly to declare that all teachers are committed to this principle today, but certainly it is practiced by a majority of teachers in our better school systems, and undoubtedly that number would be larger were it not for the personnel problems caused by the war.

The idea of offering instruction to teachers in the use of libraries and library materials as aids to better teaching is not a new one. Although not a great deal has been written on the subject, Louis Wilson pleaded for the provision of training for teachers in the use of books and children's literature as far back as 1911.<sup>7</sup> Direct attacks on the subject are also found in the Report of the Joint Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association, which presented a teaching outline for this purpose, and by Frances Henne and Mildred Lowell, who reported in 1942 on a project which "considered the practices of 153 teacher-training agencies in instructing prospective teachers about materials useful in their teaching, adolescents' literature, the use of libraries, and related subjects."<sup>8</sup>

The need for teacher education of this kind requires no elaboration. Perhaps the reasons why it has not come into being are less clear. It is difficult to say where the first responsibility rests—with librarians, with teacher-training agencies, or with public school administrators. Probably it lies with all three. There are many colleges of education advocating, teaching, and pointing the way toward revisions of the curriculum and newer methods of instruction; some of them have initiated books-and-materials courses to help prepare teachers to carry out the objectives of these new programs.

<sup>7</sup> See Frances Henne and Mildred Hawksworth Lowell, "The Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers in the Use of Library Materials," in *Library Quarterly*, XII (1942), p. 533.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 553.

But all too often, the school into which the beginning teacher goes neither permits nor encourages new practices.

As librarians, we would do well to concentrate on our own responsibilities for improving this situation. All library schools and all library science departments should assume the responsibility for incorporating this training in the curriculum of (a) the schools or departments of education in their own institution and (b) the schools or departments of education or teacher-training agencies in the regions that have no agency training librarians.

Another section of the Division Committee is at work on this problem of including material on the library and its resources in teacher-training programs. This group is identifying the types of skills and knowledge about the library and about materials used by the best teachers in their daily teaching, and the results will show specifically how these things contribute to the achievement of the objectives of teachers. They should also provide current evidence of the need for action, although the research already done plainly indicates such a course. We know now that teachers need information about materials, and that this need can be met by substantial courses in children's and adolescents' literature and by a systematic arrangement for the inclusion of information about materials as a part of all methods courses and courses in practice teaching. We also know that teachers need a knowledge of the school library and its functions. Such information about materials and libraries has a logical place in the basic education curriculum courses. This represents the minimum library program to be required of all teachers, but it is up to librarians to bear the major responsibility for selling the idea.

### RELATED CONTENT IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The sixth hypothesis states, "That librarians working with children and young people need training in the fields of reading, child psychology, and related content in the area of education." This statement, too, is based on the major assumption that the objectives for all librarians working with youth are essentially the same.

The Division Committee on Education is also preparing a compilation of the certification practices in use for all librarians working with children and young people. Until this study is completed, as well as those dealing specifically with the education of children's and

young people's librarians in public libraries, we have little objective evidence for use.

The certification figures compiled to date do show that thirty-two states require the school librarian to hold a teaching certificate based on a college degree, education courses, and library training. Four states require a degree or four years of college preparation; one requires sixty-four semester hours of college credit; and one asks for a certificate only if the librarian supervises the study hall. Very few states require specific courses in education, although it is entirely possible that all colleges and universities training teachers have designated a major portion of the education courses required for graduation.

Certification for children's and young people's librarians is practically nonexistent. A few states have established complete public library certification programs, a few others have voluntary programs, still others have some requirements for some librarians in some types of libraries, and in the rest of the states the problem is ignored. At this time we have no evidence to show whether librarians working with children and young people graduate from the college of education or have training in this related area.

In the study on the education of school librarians, the respondents have generally indicated a need for principles of curriculum construction; for both adolescent and child psychology; for the content of specific courses in the elementary and secondary-school fields; for reading, social, and vocational guidance; and for remedial reading. All the respondents have been required to hold a teaching certificate, whether they are school or teacher-librarians, yet at least half of them indicate no formal training in these subjects and report that their knowledge of them is inadequate to their needs.

## SUMMARY

The objectives of the Education Committee of the American Library Association Division of Libraries for Children and Young People are ambitious ones. They are also of profound importance, as indeed they must be to warrant the time required for them by some fifty busy librarians, not counting several hundred more who patiently answer questionnaires and keep time-activity records.

As librarians working with children and young people, we are in a favorable position to determine our needs. Although the develop-

ment of curricula to meet adequately these needs must rest primarily with professional library educators, we trust that the objective studies now in progress will produce results worthy of serious consideration in the formulation and implementation of new programs. In too many instances, either this area of library education has been ignored or the teaching and complete planning of it have been turned over to those college librarians whose knowledge of children and young people and the libraries which serve them was seriously deficient. The thought is not new, but it does no harm to say again that all librarians should be concerned with the improvement of the education of those librarians who are so largely responsible for what our children have to read, and for encouraging and helping them to read with the kind of perception and appreciation that produces good citizens—and good public library users.

## *Discussion*

MILDRED L. BATCHELDER

IT IS A privilege to begin my comments by amplifying somewhat Miss Ersted's reference to the Committee on the Education of Children's and Young People's Librarians of the American Library Association's Division of Libraries for Children and Young People. The Committee, set up two years ago and working under the chairmanship of Frances Henne, undertook a large assignment and, through the efforts of its fifty members, has made excellent progress in accomplishing its task. According to the original plan, the Committee is scheduled to complete its work by June 1949. Because the work it is doing is so important and the project so extensive, completion in 1949-1950 would be a splendid achievement.

In introducing her paper, Miss Ersted referred to the intensive analysis of the last decade's literature on the education of librarians working with children and youth. This summary, when available, must again make clear the meagerness of articles and other publications on one aspect of this subject, the objectives of various types of

library services for youth of all ages. It is an area in which not one or two, but many articles, leaflets, and other publications are needed. By study and restudy of objectives, by definition and description of philosophy and purposes, the objectives will become clarified and discussions about all phases of children's and young people's service more constructive. Is this not a kind of writing in which we should expect more contributions from library school faculty members as well as from other leaders in the field?

My discussion of the six hypotheses which Miss Ersted listed cannot take the form of argument for I find myself in no major disagreement with them. I agree that children's and young people's librarians and elementary and high school librarians should have the same basic core of education for librarianship which is planned for other librarians. Furthermore, there is advantage in a common training program for children's and young people's work whether done in the school or the public library. There are two areas in which it is very important to have the same training. Children's and young people's librarians and elementary and secondary school librarians should gain acquaintance with materials—books, films, recordings, etc.—of interest to all ages of childhood and adolescence. Some emphasis on materials for adults, especially those for parents, is also desirable for all. Also, it is essential that all students have opportunity to gain understanding of human growth and development at all age levels.

In support of common training for children's, young people's, and all types of school librarians, the librarian respondents reported need for many of the same skills and backgrounds. There were a few exceptions. Children's librarians did not find need for much background in cataloging and ordering books, since such processes are handled centrally for each public library. It is hoped that before many years, central school library departments that handle ordering and cataloging will be the rule rather than the exception in city and county school systems and that more than a basic understanding of these operations, as they would be gained in core courses, will be as unnecessary for individual school librarians as proved true among the children's librarians who were studied.

School librarians indicated interest in training to help them in public library and school library relationships. When the studies are completed, it is probable that young people's and children's librarians

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will also express their need for a better understanding of these relationships. The responses seem to indicate that the current needs for understanding of such relationships are less than adequately met by the library education which they had received. Is this an area in which some extension and intensification of training is needed?

### RELATION TO OTHER COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS

Although many library courses give excellent training in study of the community, they are less effective in preparing young librarians to work with other community institutions and agencies. It is my observation that we are sometimes better equipped in our attitudes and techniques to present the library to other agencies and groups than we are to listen with perspective and without prejudice or bias to the purposes and aspirations of those other groups or institutions. As a result, we sometimes find ourselves taking it for granted that we know the objectives and understand the program of an institution or department, when our interpretation may be based on our impressions and memories of our own childhood experiences rather than on intelligent observation and investigation of current programs. We are not always skilled in recognizing and accepting at face value the objectives and plans presented by some agency other than our own. For example, it is not difficult to find schools which have vague or inaccurate impressions of the specific aims of the public library in the community. At least as common are the public libraries which take it for granted that they know what local schools are doing, yet have limited acquaintance with the full scope of the school program and the present methods used in achieving its goals. The problem is fundamentally one of learning skills essential in democratic living, ability to listen intelligently, and willingness to change ideas and attitudes when new understandings indicate such changes. These are difficult abilities to attain. They are important skills for any citizen in a democracy, but essential ones for members of the staff of community and educational institutions. Perhaps increased opportunity, during training, for joint activities with preprofessional students in other fields might prove valuable for this purpose.

The proposal that the training of teacher-librarians should not be separated from the training of school librarians must be considered in relation to the recommendation that all school, children's, and

young people's librarians receive the same training. Is it possible to provide the same training for this group even when its desirability is granted? Teacher-librarians attend teacher-training institutions for their teacher education and, except for the group which obtain their library training by courses after graduation, the common pattern is for students to take work for teacher-librarianship as part of the teacher education program. The most promising opportunities for experimentation with common training exist in the universities and colleges where library schools and library science departments are on the same campus with colleges or departments of education. In these, a closer integration of student guidance and of course planning might accomplish some important results.

The difficulties existing in providing training for teacher-librarians in the same places in which other librarians working with children are trained suggest a further question about common specialized training for all librarians working with children and youth. The exploration on a new basis of the same training for children's librarians and elementary school librarians would probably produce stronger candidates for both types of library service. Similarly, combined training for young people's librarians and secondary school librarians might result in more able librarians for each field. Whether the same specialized training is appropriate and practical for librarians working with young children and for those working with adolescents is open to question. Some overlapping background in study of materials and in study of human development has already been mentioned as desirable for work with any age groups. But should the entire specialized course be common for librarians working with elementary and secondary school age groups?

It is not surprising to find children's, young people's, and elementary and secondary school librarians wishing for the type of broad general education recommended by Dr. Faust in his paper. Their checking indicated that courses they had taken in languages and mathematics were least useful. Is there need to make a new case for active reading facility in at least one language other than English for librarians working with youth? The need is especially important for them as citizens in a country bringing up its children to be citizens of the world. We urge all libraries for children and young people to include at least a few examples of picture books and other



books from many countries. Surely the librarian should have language abilities to be able to share the books from one or more foreign countries with the children. Perhaps library school courses in materials can encourage more young librarians to use their language background in this way.

Responses from librarians indicated their recognition of the importance to them of certain courses to meet certification requirements and to fill in special areas of knowledge which contribute to school librarianship in which the student expects to work. Certification requirements vary widely. Specific course and hour requirements in a number of certification regulations are a handicap rather than an advantage in the over-all library training program. Realistically, however, all library training agencies need to be in touch with teacher-training agencies and state certification authorities so that guidance of students will result in the soundest program possible, and so that graduates may not find themselves without courses required for certification in the state in which they wish to work.

### TRAINING TEACHERS IN LIBRARY MATTERS

In making my last comment, I find myself in a dilemma. As a member of the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, I have seen and read the reports of the Committee and any serious question of policy should have been raised with the Committee. One subject which the Committee is studying is the background training which teachers need in library resources and library use. The assertion is that training of this kind should be required of teachers. My question concerns the appropriateness, or lack of it, of such an investigation initiated by librarians.<sup>1</sup> Perhaps the teaching profession would like to recommend some required courses for librarians. Instead of this emphasis on teachers' needs, would it not be helpful for librarians, especially library school instructors, to work out a continuing means of keeping in touch with teacher-education programs to know what types of materials are needed and what kinds of use will be made of them? Teacher-training agencies and teachers' professional organizations periodically give major attention to the

<sup>1</sup> The committee chairman, Frances Henne, reported from the floor in the discussion period that members of the subcommittee working on this problem are making contacts with teachers and with specialists in departments of education.

subject of materials. There is such an interest at the present time. In some situations, librarians have been active in faculty study of this subject. In others, they have not been consulted or involved. Perhaps the thought that the librarian would be concerned or interested may not have occurred to those now studying the best ways to handle materials to achieve their teaching purposes. Possibly such oversights stem from the experience which some teachers and administrators have had with librarians whose training and native qualifications have not prepared them for flexibility in adapting routines and patterns to adjust to changing programs.

It is certain that changes in teaching will often involve changes in the quantity and type of materials. It may also imply a radical change in the pattern of organization and use of materials. How can librarians keep in touch with these changes? How can librarians learn what is going on and be in a position to present and adapt library ways of handling materials to be considered?

Teacher-training agencies take leadership in identifying and experimenting with new programs and with better selection and use of materials. Would it not be desirable, in universities or teachers' colleges where there is both a library school or library science department and an education school or department, to establish a continuing committee on materials? Such a committee could give its major attention to changes in subjects taught and to ways in which teaching is done, both of which have implications for the selection, organization, and use of materials. As a result of such committees, library school instructors would be able to adapt their teaching to include recognition of significant changes. Education instructors would be able to observe various library methods of handling materials and to adapt their instruction to recognize the results of the committee work. Results would be important for consideration in in-service training situations as well as in the library schools and library science departments.

Agreements with Miss Ersted's paper have been much more numerous than have my questions. The opportunity for practicing school, children's, and young people's librarians to analyze and evaluate their training in the light of their use of that training should provide a pattern for a continuing relationship between the products of education for librarianship and its planners and teachers.

# Education for Special Librarianship

HERMAN H. HENKLE

THERE IS probably no field of librarianship about which there is wider divergence of opinion on professional training than that of the special librarian. The diversity in the philosophy of education for special librarianship may be illustrated by two extremes. At one extreme of opinion, the special librarian should be first a subject specialist. He must also have library school training, or it is desirable that he have library school training, or it is not essential that he have library school training because he can pick up all the library techniques he needs from his experience. At the other extreme, the special librarian is first a librarian and only secondarily a subject specialist—again with similar variants relating to the intensity of need for special subject knowledge.

In attempting another analysis of the problem, I am aware of the danger at best I might not dispel any of the confusion and at worst I might add to it. The danger is worth the risk, however, because the job of the special librarian is increasing in scope, in volume, and in importance. A clear educational charter is more urgent than ever.

The education of the special librarian is not a new topic of discussion. There have been frequent papers on the subject in our professional journals since the early twenties. The most vocal have insisted that the training of the special librarian must be special and that the traditional pattern of library school instruction should be modified to that end. In a review of the status of training for special librarians in 1937, however, Shera<sup>1</sup> remarked that "the concept of the basic curriculum will die hard. There will be great reluctance on the part of the schools to cast off the impediments of an overburdened course of study, even though the usefulness of much

<sup>1</sup> Jesse H. Shera, "Training for 'Specials': the Status of the Library Schools," in *Special Libraries*, XXVIII (1937), 317-21.

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of it can definitely be disproved." It is desirable to reassess the situation after ten years to ascertain what progress, if any, has been made. To this end, the following summary is reported, based on a study of recent catalogs of the accredited library schools.

### COURSES OFFERED FOR SPECIAL LIBRARIANS—1948

Nineteen of the thirty-seven accredited library schools give no attention to special libraries in the description of courses offered in their current catalogs. Three schools (Chicago, New Jersey College for Women, and Rosary College) specify that attention is given to special libraries in the general courses. The other sixteen schools offer some formal instruction pointed to the needs of special libraries in general, or to special libraries of specific types.

It is a matter of interest relating to this Conference that the Graduate Library School is among those which offer no courses on special librarianship, although there are offered special courses on administration of public libraries, academic libraries, and rare book rooms, and on service to the special groups of children and young people. The catalog for the current year discloses no awareness of the special library except by reference in the introductory course, *The Library and Society*.

Eight schools offer single elective courses on special libraries—California, Louisiana (listed but not offered in 1948), McGill, Michigan, Pratt, College of St. Catherine, Southern California, and Toronto.<sup>2</sup> Western Reserve offers a course on Special Libraries and another on Hospital Library Service. Denver offers a similar group of courses, "time and credit to be arranged." Texas State College for Women offers a course on College and Special Libraries. Carnegie Institute of Technology gives a course on Administration of Science and Technology Libraries.

Six schools offer groups of courses which are described or might be described as "programs of study" for special librarians. These are the Universities of Minnesota and Washington, Western Reserve University, Columbia University, Drexel Institute of Technology, and Simmons College. The Minnesota program is limited to hospital libraries, but appears to be one of the best integrated of the special programs offered. The University of Washington courses are devoted

<sup>2</sup> Catholic University offers a similar course in the spring of 1949.

to law libraries—Advanced Legal Bibliography, Legal Reference and Research, and Law Library Administration. They are not described as a “program,” but obviously can constitute a special program for any qualified student who completes all of the courses.

Western Reserve offers several special programs, one of which is College and University, or Special Library Service. The opportunity for specialization is rather meagre, however, in view of the relatively small number of elective hours allowed. Columbia has been offering several “elective groupings” for special fields of library work, but special library work is not among them. The numbers and variety of courses offered, however, add up to opportunities for programs of study along one of several lines—special libraries in general, law libraries, medical libraries, and music libraries.

The programs best designed for an intensive study of special library methods and administration are conducted at Drexel and Simmons. The former offers four courses, two in the Winter quarter and two in the Spring quarter. These are, in sequence: Special Library Sources, Special Library Methods, Special Library Reference and Bibliography, and Special Library Administration.<sup>8</sup>

The most intensive and the most closely integrated program for special librarians is conducted at Simmons College. Three courses, one in administration, and two in reference and subject bibliography, require a total of six year-hours (the equivalent of twelve semester hours), or three quarters of the second-semester course load. A description of these courses from the school's 1948-1949 catalog will be given later.

<sup>8</sup> The course descriptions are:

*Special Library Sources.* (2 credits) Introduction to the field of special libraries. Distinctive features of company and departmental libraries are contrasted. Emphasis is placed on creating a special library and keeping it up to date through examination of technical and business periodicals, trade catalogs, business directories, house organs and services.

*Special Library Methods.* (2 credits) Techniques used in care of non-book material, special files and indexes, together with evaluation of pertinent classification schemes, and special subject headings. Abstracting and editing of bulletins and reports in company libraries. Inter-library contacts and intracompany relations.

*Special Library Reference and Bibliography.* (3 credits) A survey of those tools necessary for business, government and technical libraries, including federal, state and local documents. Use of company files and outside collections in bibliographical research. Projects are based on timely questions.

*Special Library Administration.* (2 credits) Publicity, personnel, physical arrangements and financial aspect of the company and organization library. Each student presents a term paper on the operation of a special library.

## EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL LIBRARIANSHIP

### WHAT IS A SPECIAL LIBRARIAN?

Before attempting to evaluate the present status of professional education available to special librarians, we should consider certain matters of definition and certain of the newer developments having important bearing on the character of special library services and the education of personnel supplying those services.

What is a special library? A special librarian? The answers to these questions must be precise and clearly understood, for they are also the key to the problem before us—education for special librarians.

Morley, Lever, and others<sup>4</sup> defined three types of special libraries in an analysis of the training problem in 1938. Somewhat paraphrased, these are:

1. The library which is an integral part of a nonlibrary and non-educational institution, the class into which fall libraries of manufacturing companies, banks, government departments, and research foundations. This type is described as one in which "*the library staff is the principal user of the library rather than the clientele.*" The library will have a subject concentration but often few subject limitations. Its subject interests, its activities and services, and its administration are coordinated with the parent, nonlibrary organization.

2. A subject department of a public or a university library. This library usually has a definite subject limitation, usually does not carry on certain functions like acquisition and cataloging, and is usually coordinated with the central library rather than the clientele or organization served.

3. A library of a trade association, museum, or other organization serving not only the staff of the organization but members or general public as well.

Defined casually, a special librarian would be a librarian working in one of these three types of libraries. Obviously this is too vague, because it does not accent the fact that the three types of libraries are classified together because of similarity of function performed rather than similarities in structure. Moriarty defines the function of the special library as follows: "Typically it is the sustained and continued service of securing assessed information, not limited to print, for one

<sup>4</sup>Linda H. Morley, Eileen E. Lever, and others, "Problems Involved in Considering Adequate Library School Courses for Special Librarians," in *Special Libraries*, XXIX (1938), 141-44.

group, often in one field of knowledge, but equally often in several fields."<sup>5</sup> An analysis of this definition leads us to two conclusions: (1) that some libraries within each of the types defined by Morley, Lever, *et al.*, have only in part the essential characteristics of a special library, and (2) that still others do not deserve the designation notwithstanding the fact that they possess some of the physical and organizational characteristics of a special library. These conclusions are drawn from the following analysis of the several elements in Moriarty's definition of the special library.

*"Securing assessed information."* This function is the one which characterizes that group of libraries in which the librarian is the principal user of the library, or at least an equally important user of the library in comparison with its clientele. It is not a universal function even in company libraries. In some specialized libraries, such as departmental libraries, the function is not performed in any significant degree. In many special libraries, the performance of this function does not differ materially from the service performed in the well-organized reference departments in academic and public libraries.

*"Not limited to print."* The authority rather than the form is the important quality of information. Many special librarians whose companies have active development programs may be required to ascertain information which is so new as not to have found its way into print or which might not have been published in just the form desired. In such instances, familiarity with authorities whose knowledge can be tapped becomes an essential part of the librarian's job.

*"For one group."* An essential quality of this phrase is that the specialized needs of the library's clientele will govern the information accumulated and the form in which it is presented. In theory, the information services given in a general library should take as careful account of the user's special needs as must be done in the special library. In practice, however, this characteristic of information service is much more typical in the special library.

*"In one field of knowledge . . . or in several fields."* This aspect of our definition, standing alone, does not differentiate "special" from "general" in terms of library service. It simply indicates that the special librarian's field of operation is not necessarily limited to one

<sup>5</sup> John H. Moriarty, "The Special Librarian—How Special?" in *Special Libraries*, XXXVI (1945), 39.

discipline. Subject specialization does not by itself make a library "special."

#### SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION

There is one other quality of special library service which requires particular consideration. It relates to the function of securing information and has direct relevance to the much-discussed problem of the degree of subject expertness which is essential to special library services.

It must be recognized that the responsibility of the special librarian varies widely. At one extreme, it may require no more knowledge of a subject than is essential to identify contents in the literature. In the other extreme, it may require the special librarian to prepare an evaluation of data contained in technical literature, with a quality of judgment which can serve as the basis for policy decisions or the foundation for a company's development program.

It is from these extremes that the confusion arises in the use of the term "subject specialist" in library literature dealing with the problem of special education. The first assignment can be fulfilled by a librarian. The second requires a subject expert. The two can be, but are not necessarily, synonymous, even in the organization of a special library. To such degree as they are synonymous, the special librarian is in effect a member of the research staff, but he need not be that in order to be a good librarian.

It is not intended in the preceding paragraphs to take issue with the widely accepted opinion that an undergraduate major in a closely related subject is the minimum subject background for any special library. It is intended to emphasize that undergraduate study does not make subject experts. In these days of highly specialized sciences, the Ph.D. or years of study and research experience based on undergraduate study are required to qualify for the rank of expert. The first gives familiarity, the second gives authority. And authority is needed when librarians are depended upon for expert judgment.

#### NEW DEVELOPMENTS INFLUENCING SPECIAL LIBRARIANS

There are a number of new developments in the library field, at least four of which are of marked importance for the future development of special library services.



*University divisional libraries.* The development of the divisional library plan at the Universities of Colorado, Iowa, and Nebraska, and in other academic institutions, is increasing the importance of special qualifications for the librarians in charge of the divisional libraries. Where these libraries are designed to serve the research needs of graduate student and faculty members, the divisional librarian becomes a key figure in the success of the university library's service program. However, it is important to emphasize the differences in library situations requiring subject knowledge on the part of the librarian. In those institutions in which the primary responsibility of the divisional librarian is to provide intelligent reference service, the librarian must have a good general knowledge of the subject matter but need not be an expert.

*Increases in amount of industrial research.* In terms of financial investment, scientific research and development carried on by industrial organizations has reached the level of several hundred million dollars a year. This means a more intensive informational program for many of our existing special libraries and a probable increase in the total number of special libraries.

*Public library service to industrial research.* Programs of service to industrial research, like that being developed at the John Crerar Library, represent a new pattern in public library service. Where such service has been established it represents the adoption of special library methods by the public library, and eliminates much of the distinction between the two types of libraries. Here again there exists the same differential in subject knowledge required.

This differentiation can be illustrated by the categories of personnel which have been established in the staffing of the Research Information Service of the John Crerar Library. The reference librarians will continue to be responsible for specialized attention to the reference problems in the various fields of science and technology and will participate in some measure in the extra bibliographical services given to individual industries. Professional library training and academic training in one of the sciences to the extent of at least a Bachelor's degree will be a normal requirement. The special staff of the Research Information Service consists of research assistants with sufficient graduate work or research experience to conduct competent literature searches, and research consultants with Doctorates or

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extensive research experience to prepare more critical reports. Neither of the latter two groups are required to have library school training (although two do have) and they will not normally participate in the general services of the library.

*The Master's program in library schools.* The remodeling of the first-year graduate instruction in librarianship to substitute a Master's program for the program now leading to the Bachelor's degree or certificate is one of the most significant recent developments in education for librarianship. Accompanied by a firm insistence on specified prerequisites in undergraduate study and a curriculum based on these studies, the new program promises to produce graduates with better understanding of the objectives of librarianship and of the principles by which these objectives can be realized.

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Having reviewed the current status of curricula for special librarians, the characteristics of special library service, and some of the new developments affecting librarianship, we may attempt an evaluation of the present opportunities offered for the professional education of special librarians.

More than half of the accredited library schools offer no course work directed particularly to the training of special librarians. Setting aside those schools whose placement opportunities fall primarily in the field of public and school libraries, there still remain a number of schools which should be giving attention to the educational needs of special librarians. It is recognized that there are problems in the placement of graduates and in the planning and administration of library school curricula which must be taken account of in the development of any program for special administration in the one-year library curriculum. I shall give attention to certain of these separately.

Of those schools offering some instruction for special libraries, most offer only a single, small-unit elective. Very few schools offer an organized program of study for special librarians. In the light of this picture, it would appear that Mr. Shera was correct in his estimate of 1937 that "the concept of the basic curriculum will die hard." Certainly, relatively little progress has been made in most schools in more than a decade in the development of a curriculum for special librarians.

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There appears still to be a great deal of room for improvement in our understanding of what professional content is basic to the work of all librarians. It is not the purpose of this paper to deal with this problem, but I should like to make one suggestion to illustrate the kind of attack which can be made upon the problem with promise of far-reaching effect. A deeply rooted custom in our professional education is to dump library school students into the problems of cataloging within the first few days of their professional studies. Insufficient care is taken to stress the fact that cataloging is but one of several bibliographical activities engaged in by librarians.

It is proposed that library schools substitute for descriptive cataloging in the first semester a course in descriptive bibliography designed to introduce the student to problems of authorship, edition, issues, etc., which are common to all bibliographic descriptions for whatever purpose. In such a course, the problems of cataloging would be introduced along with the problems of compiling bibliographies of various types.

### ALTERNATIVE PROGRAMS FOR SPECIAL LIBRARIANS

As an attempt at a concrete proposal, I should like to present two alternative programs which I shall designate as the "Simmons Program," and a "General Special Program." There are three key courses in the second-semester program of "Special Library Service" offered at Simmons College. The course descriptions follow:

#### LIBRARY ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION      3 yr.-hrs.<sup>6</sup>

This course presents the principles and problems of organization and administration in special libraries connected with such types of organizations as corporations, museums, hospitals, professional schools and associations, membership societies, and government agencies. The student studies, in addition, methods of selection, acquisition, organization, and care of many types of materials in relation to their uses and value in different types of special libraries. Cataloging and classification problems of a special library are considered. Study of the functions and activities of each type of special library emphasizes the services which special librarians contribute to the work of the various types of organizations.

Individual exercises and observation periods in libraries give each student the opportunity to study the special administrative and organizational problems in her own field.

<sup>6</sup> One "year-hour" is equivalent to two semester hours or three quarter hours.

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### REFERENCE AND SUBJECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

2 yr.-hrs.

The literature of various fields of knowledge is presented, including not only bibliographical and reference sources, but also the important treatises, periodicals, pamphlets, documents, and other types of materials. Foreign bibliographies, both national and trade, are surveyed. Students analyze bibliographical methods used in the preparation of subject and author bibliographies and study the arrangement and indexing problems in varying types of bibliographical presentations. Bibliographies prepared in connection with other courses are used as laboratory exercises. This course continues the study of reference method and administrative problems, and prepares students for reference work in public, college, and university libraries.

### RESEARCH AND BIBLIOGRAPHICAL METHOD IN SUBJECT FIELDS 1 yr.-hr.

This course is conducted as a seminar for the discussion of methods of giving information and reference service to the clientele in various types of special libraries, and for the study of bibliographical and research problems. The consideration of subject literatures is individualized for students on the basis of the major subject of their undergraduate or graduate study. Each student compiles a bibliography and explores systematically the literature of a subject field.

Having participated in the development of the Simmons program in the fall of 1937, I shall give some of the objectives which we had in mind in the development of a program for special librarians and other special fields of library service. The objectives were these:

1. *Some specialization in a one-year professional program.* It was recognized that the conventional one-year professional program in library schools was inadequate for certain fields of library service, notably library service to adult users of public libraries and library service in special libraries. It was believed to be inconsistent to require all library students to submit to a uniform, inflexible program and that wide variation in types of library service should be reflected in the library school curriculum.

2. *Sufficient flexibility to avoid undue limitation of placement possibilities.* We were aware of the frequent objection to specialization within one-year curricula made on the ground that there is a minimum content of professional education which is "basic" to all fields of library service, and that this "basic" curriculum could not be presented in less than one academic year. It was recognized that there

is a degree of unity in library service which should be reflected in the curriculum, but that through emphasis on principles and theory rather than on routines of practice it should be possible to shorten the time necessary for presenting these fundamentals. It was believed also that the validity of the accepted idea of a minimum of one year for the basic courses had been partially vitiated by the increase in the number of elective courses in library school curricula.

3. *An integrated curriculum.* Integration of the library science program with the academic background of students and integration of courses within the professional curriculum for specific fields of library service were accepted as an important objective. This led to the grouping together of varied subject content into large unit courses of from four to six semester hours, making possible a better balance in emphasis on the various parts of the study program. Definite arrangements were made also for the close coordination of courses in administration and bibliography and reference. Integration of academic and professional studies within the special library program were accomplished by relating the study of bibliography and field-work assignments to each student's undergraduate background.

One principle adopted from the start in the special library program was to admit only those students who had completed undergraduate majors in fields related to more or less common types of special libraries. Another important characteristic of the plan for special programs was the designation of one member of the faculty for each of the programs, to carry responsibility for its planning and coordination—not only in the course or courses taught by the faculty member in question but also in the other courses to be taken by the student in that program.

4. *A minimum number of courses.* It was believed that the more or less common practice of having students carry five to eight courses of two and three units in the second semester tended to scatter unnecessarily a student's attention and to force disbalance in the curriculum by requiring more class hours in some subjects than were justified by the time available, and fewer class hours than were needed in others.

A factor of great importance in relation to the program just described is the number of students enrolled in the school. At Simmons it served as no deterrent to the development of special

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programs carried on through formally organized classes. On occasions when the number of students enrolled in the program was very small, the nature of the instruction took on some of the characteristics of the tutorial system. This suggests the possibility that there is no school too small to undertake such specialized instruction if it has faculty members qualified to conduct instruction through all of the varied facets of work in a particular type of library.

One of the best illustrations of possibilities for individualized programs for special libraries is that which has been accomplished at the School of Librarianship in Denver. The Denver school accomplishes a program of instruction for one student not unlike the formal program developed at Simmons College.<sup>7</sup>

### A GENERAL SPECIAL PROGRAM

The potential increase in the number of corporation libraries, the spread of the divisional library idea in universities, and the rise of special library service programs in public libraries suggest an alternative program which would be an application of the basic curriculum idea to a broad group of library service positions. This would involve the orientation of a large proportion, if not all, of the courses in a curriculum toward the special problems in academic and industrial research libraries. The courses in administration and reference would be similar to those now offered in the special library program at Simmons College, except that the bibliography and reference courses offered in the first semester would also be slanted toward the characteristic problems and service programs of research libraries. The great unsatisfied demand for library personnel with such intensive training should exhaust the output of several library schools for a period of years, provided there were a firm adherence to high standards for admission to such a program of study.

One facet of the training program appears to be of great importance for the training of special librarians, namely, the opportunity to observe libraries in action throughout the instruction program. Field assignments for at least brief periods, and in a variety of library situations, appears to be a desirable part of the preparation of a special

<sup>7</sup> A case study report of the Denver program in operation is: Isobel Nichol, "Library School Preparation for Special Subject Librarians," in *Special Libraries*, XXXV (1944), 120-24.

librarian. There is some evidence also that the period of internship following library school would serve to round out the qualifications of the new librarian. Any application of the intern program, however, should assume organized in-service instruction as varied in scope as the library situation can provide.

In conclusion, it must be admitted that there is still much to be learned through trial and error or by systematic observation. Progress in education for special librarianship, however, will come only in those schools willing to experiment.

## *Discussion*

ROSE L. VORMELKER

ANY DISCUSSION of a training program for special librarianship must begin with consideration of the facilities for such training which are available at present. There have been two recent studies: one a survey based on college catalog descriptions, and the other a survey based on returns from a questionnaire.

Concerning the first, the fact that college catalogs do not always contain adequate descriptions of courses should be pointed out. Of the schools included in the survey, at least one gave only the barest suggestion of the coverage of its course. To condense into a few lines in a college catalog all of the ramifications of a course in special librarianship is a difficult task, and it is probably safe to assume that more is being offered than the catalogs indicate. Furthermore, new courses, not yet included in catalogs, are being offered; Catholic University, for instance, is organizing its first course in the subject this autumn.

The second survey was made by Linda Morley and published under the title "Special Library Education in the United States and Canada" in the *Journal of Documentation*, June 1947. Miss Morley sent questionnaires to all teachers of courses pertinent to the subject and from the returns analyzed in considerable detail the content of such courses.

## EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL LIBRARIANSHIP

### DEFINITION OF SPECIAL LIBRARIANSHIP

The heart of the problem has been uncovered by Mr. Henkle in his attempt to crystallize definitions of special libraries and special librarianship. Around these terms, and even around the name of the professional organization, the Special Libraries Association, has developed a cluster of concepts and a significance not inherent in the words, but widely understood and accepted by special librarians. There is, however, no one generally accepted definition which is at once broad enough to include all types of special libraries and at the same time specific enough to indicate the real difference between this and other fields of librarianship.

Before accepting appointment in a large industrial organization, I asked a number of special librarians in what ways their work differed from other library work for adults. The answers invariably followed the same pattern:

A special librarian must give service. A special librarian gets for the client what he needs, when he needs it, and in the form in which he needs it. A special librarian doesn't look vague when Diesel engines or Dow-Jones industrials are mentioned. A special librarian does not merely wave a hand and direct a person to "second stack to the right."

And further, a special librarian not only gets the book which is expected to give the desired information, but also assembles and calls attention to related materials found in periodicals, special surveys, documents, and reports. A special librarian cannot skim the surface, but must make sure by actual reading of proffered material that it meets the inquirer's needs. Sometimes the material must be abstracted or synthesized.

In other words, the special librarian must have: (1) detailed subject knowledge; (2) the ability to adapt rules to fit special needs—especially those concerning cataloging and classification; and (3) alertness to foresee needs before they are expressed, to seek new sources of information, and to use all available resources to the fullest extent.

It is sometimes said that special librarianship is an "attitude." Actually, the "attitude" is not different from the philosophy animating the technology department of the Detroit Public Library or the Business Information Bureau of the Cleveland Public Library.

In searching for definitions other than those given in library literature, one turns naturally to the definitions of various professions and



vocations offered in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* compiled in the U.S. Department of Labor.<sup>1</sup> A search there, however, reveals no entries under special librarian, technical librarian, chemical librarian, corporation librarian, scientific librarian, business librarian, information specialist, subject specialist, or any other of the terms generally associated with the special library field. There is one definition of a general "library manager," one of a general library assistant, one of a "morgue keeper" in a publishing establishment, one of a sales clerk in a rental library, one of a "retail trade" librarian, and a reference from radio-broadcasting to music librarian. The motion-picture industry is honored with two entries, one under motion-picture librarian and one under research worker.

Only in the supplement is there a definition at all similar to the usually accepted one, and that is given under the heading "Reference librarian." The reference librarian for an industrial concern "selects and reviews books and periodicals on current technical and non-technical developments pertaining to the company's business, routes lists of pertinent material to company employees, and furnishes reference data and information to various departments on request." Obviously, this definition applies to a special librarian rather than to a reference librarian, as we usually use the terms, and yet it ignores all special librarians except those attached to industrial concerns.

#### OTHER PROBLEMS AND DEVELOPMENTS

In summarizing new developments affecting special librarians, Mr. Henkle mentions "increase in amount of industrial research" and "public library service to industrial research," mentioning particularly the John Crerar Library and the Detroit Public Library programs. To these should be added the increased commercial, economic, and market research now being done by large industrial and commercial corporations. All of these projects require librarians with considerable knowledge of economics, business procedure, technology, and statistical method and interpretation. Current expansion of educational facilities for advanced training and research in business and industry will still further increase the demand for trained special librarians.

<sup>1</sup> United States, Employment Service, *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* . . . (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1939-44; 5 vols. and several supplements).

Public or centralized research library service to business and industry is not in competition with the special libraries maintained by the larger corporations for their own benefit. Each stimulates the establishment and growth of the other, and both function best when their services are well coordinated. The experience of the Cleveland Public Library during the past seventeen years bears ample witness to this statement. The paid industrial service from a public source will always be supplementary to the firm's own library, and the best special library must always be dependent upon the larger resources of a more comprehensive collection.

Mr. Henkle's proposal to substitute descriptive bibliography for descriptive cataloging is worth careful consideration. It would certainly be valuable to the student to be familiar with the bibliographic techniques used in any form of publication. It might also be well to correlate descriptive bibliography with subject bibliography in different fields. The assistance of well-qualified subject experts drawn from different departments of a university would not only provide the background of knowledge needed by the prospective librarian, but might add much to the basic bibliographic tools and methods of the various fields. Any step which will improve the quality of library school instruction will ultimately increase the prestige of the school on its own campus, a consideration not to be lightly ignored.

Of the two proposals for library school curricula which have been presented, the "general special" program would probably help to keep training for special librarianship under the control of the library schools. More specialized courses, such as those offered at Simmons, Denver, Carnegie Institute of Technology, and Western Reserve University are obviously more thorough. The two plans might well be divided among the library schools of the country as a step in a coordinated national program.

The demand for qualified special librarians is great. That demand must be met in one way or another. If our schools do not take advantage of this opportunity, much of the ground won by a few pioneers and handed to our present-day educators will be lost. The loss resulting from the failure of a special library under the management of an incompetent person is a loss not only to the firm involved but also to the library profession as a whole.

The immediate needs are three: (1) facilities for the training of

special librarians; (2) experienced and qualified teachers; and (3) a comprehensive textbook on the subject. In regard to the last of these three, it is a pleasure to report that the Special Libraries Association, through its Professional Activities Committee, expects to prepare for study and discussion the syllabus or outline of such a text before the end of 1948.

# Professional Education for Librarianship: Summary

NEIL C. VAN DEUSEN

WHEN PETER tells you about Paul, you learn more about Peter than about Paul. I advise the reader to keep this remark in mind for the next pages, since I have nothing to offer but opinions. I am not certain that anyone can offer anything else but his opinions on this subject, and this thought consoles me somewhat. For as I read through the recent literature on education for librarianship, I find some very well-informed opinions but also some sweeping statements unbulwarked by substantial evidence. The social sciences and librarianship are still awaiting the coming of a Newton or an Einstein. Many librarians would settle for a Plato or an Aristotle, if we credit the increasingly frequent pleas for a philosophy of librarianship.

Practically everything has been said about library schools in the past five years except a kind word. As Mr. Powell puts it: "For a good many years the library schools have been the whipping boys of the profession." The catalog of library school sins is impressive: too much emphasis on mere techniques, faculties too limited in academic and professional background, too much crowded into one year, curricula too broad—not deep enough, insufficient integration with other departments of the university, schools not educating for leadership either in subject fields or in administration, Master's curriculum only an extension of the Bachelor's curriculum, little distinction between technical and professional aspects, schools not sufficiently aware of the needs of the profession, schools not selecting students with sufficient care.

The sins of the Type I and Type II schools are bad enough, but do not consign them to the very depths. The place beside Brutus, Judas, and Lucifer in the lowest circle of the Inferno is reserved for the Type III schools. If you feel this is an overstatement, consider

the following quotations from recent writers dealing with this topic of library education:

"In time for shortage, as now when competition for recruits has never been so keen, librarians are urged to let down the bars, permitting more Type III schools to encourage more ill-prepared applicants and graduates."<sup>1</sup> Please note the use of the word "encourage."

"One of the most vulnerable chinks in the armor of professional education is that, whereas a number of the schools are connected with first-rate institutions, maintain good standards, have relatively good faculties, and more or less adequate budgets, far too many of them are woefully weak in these and other respects. A majority of the eleven present Type III and a few of the Type II schools belong in this group."<sup>2</sup>

"The Type III school is a danger to the profession since its graduate lacks only one year of full professional education." Mr. Munn, however, is not quite as strong in his condemnation of the Type III school as others and provides himself with a "loophole through which I can later crawl if necessary." In time of depression we may need the Type III school as we are forced by economic conditions to reduce our requirements.

The picture painted is black indeed, and the ugliest part is the attack on the Type III school. But it may turn out to be a distorted rather than a true picture of reality. For what is the evidence presented for this dire situation in the schools?

The evidence given for the weakness of library school faculties is a table showing the academic and professional degrees held by faculty members. It seems to be assumed that there is some positive correlation between the number and level of degrees and teaching ability, although discussion of the latter is conspicuous by its absence in our literature on library education.

The evidence for overemphasis on techniques is supplied by singling out mention of such items as "routing slips" and "care of phonograph records" in statements about what sort of information is needed by some librarians. Has a study been made of all courses in all library schools showing in a comprehensive way the relation of

<sup>1</sup> Joseph L. Wheeler, *Progress and Problems in Education for Librarianship* (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1946), p. 39.

<sup>2</sup> J. Periam Danton, *Education for Librarianship: Criticisms, Dilemmas, and Proposals* (New York: School of Library Service, Columbia University, 1946), p. 28.

## PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP: SUMMARY

the treatment of the principles of librarianship to the treatment of routines? If this study does exist, we still have to decide *how much* constitutes *too much* emphasis on techniques and routines.

My purpose thus far is to call attention to the need for evidence at every step in our criticisms of library schools. There is point to many of the criticisms and suggestions, and there is no doubt that our schools need and will receive improved programs if we seek calmly for solid evidence as to what is needed and for the best ways of accomplishing our objectives. Our first task would seem to be to assess the practical difficulties which the profession as a whole faces in order to see the problems of the library schools in focus. We can then proceed to an examination of the assumptions underlying the library school as an institution. And finally we may be able to agree on other assumptions about the nature of the library school problem which would bid fair to dispel this nightmare of the library profession. At all these points the papers of Mr. Munn, Miss Ersted, Mr. Powell, and Mr. Henkle make solid contributions.

### THE CURRENT DIFFICULTIES OF THE LIBRARY PROFESSION

The first candidate in this list of difficulties is undoubtedly *the shortage of librarians*. The numerical and qualitative deficiencies of librarians are undoubtedly underlying causes of many problems which at first sight appear to be unrelated, as, for example, Mr. Munn's irritation at the refusal of the library schools to admit the M.I.T. graduate. The shortage has produced a frayed temper in many an administrator as he sees his best professionals drained off into better-paying positions. It tends to be felt more acutely in libraries which cannot pay so well. *Low salaries* constitute a second major difficulty of librarians, and are generally considered the chief cause of the shortage.

A third oft-mentioned difficulty is *the lack of prestige* attending the practice of librarianship as compared with professions such as medicine and law. Libraries are still not widely recognized as important social agencies, it is said, and young people do not want to enter a profession which still has to make its reputation for usefulness. This failure on the part of the public to realize our usefulness and social importance results in inadequate budgets, and consequently, in lack of resources with which we might demonstrate our social useful-

ness. This circle constitutes a serious problem for librarians.

A fourth difficulty of the profession as a whole and one which is felt in some quarters to be the key to all other library problems is the alleged *lack of a philosophy of librarianship*. Mr. Metcalf, Mr. Russell, and Mr. Osborn state as a fact "that there is no philosophy of librarianship to give point and depth to certain parts of the library school program."<sup>8</sup> The library journals have carried frequent references in recent years to the need for a philosophy of librarianship, and all those who have made studies of education for librarianship in recent years have stressed the need for emphasis on aims, objectives, principles—in short, a philosophy of librarianship. The implication seems to be that if we could agree on the answers to basic questions we would be able to solve our budgetary and personnel difficulties.

The current practical problems of the library schools seem to be connected with these four general problems of the profession. The level which may be maintained for professional training is dictated in large measure by the economic condition in the profession, as Mr. Munn points out. Most librarians are now agreed that five years of collegiate and professional education are the minimum and, for all practical purposes for the majority of the profession, the maximum that can be required under present conditions. Therefore, professional library education must for economic and practical reasons be limited to one academic year, or at most one calendar year, and is defined for administrative purposes as thirty semester hours or thereabouts.

As a result of these conditions over which the schools have little control, they are asked to produce within a one-year period both library generals and competent officers down as far as the level of second lieutenants. The noncommissioned officers and privates can be supplied, it is said, by other agencies and trained in the ranks by the officers. But these library generals and officers are to command divisions such as public, academic, school, and special libraries, and they will need correspondingly different training at least in certain respects. Furthermore, within each division, some will have administrative, others cataloging, reference, or other jobs; therefore, the profession would like training for specific jobs.

<sup>8</sup> Keyes D. Metcalf, John Dale Russell, and Andrew D. Osborn, *The Program of Instruction in Library Schools* (Urbana: Univ. of Illinois Press, 1943), p. 7.

## PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP: SUMMARY

### LIBRARY SCHOOL PROBLEMS

The library school problem is complicated by other factors which have not received so much attention as the foregoing. Mr. Munn mentions the placement of twenty-two of the sixty-five graduates of Columbia's class of 1946 in libraries too small to provide in-service training, and points out that the proportion may be higher in most other schools. He has also called attention elsewhere<sup>4</sup> to the different personnel needs of large or scholarly libraries and small libraries. I have not been able to find nationwide figures for the number of librarians working in one-position libraries. However, a check of the 1947 reports of public libraries in the state of New York to the Library Extension Division showed that 442 out of 617 public libraries had only one staff member. This figure should be reduced somewhat, for the smallest class of library reporting was not asked to list staff and in some cases these libraries have more than one person. A competent state school library supervisor estimates that 95 per cent of the school librarians are in one-position libraries. I have no way of judging the number of librarians in one-position college and special libraries, but if the figures I have indicated are not very wide of the mark, it seems reasonable to assume that perhaps one-half or more of all librarians employed in the United States at present work in single-position libraries.

It seems extremely likely, therefore, that many of the graduates of the library schools will find positions where there are no noncommissioned officers or privates. And they will go into these positions in increasing numbers in time of depression. I realize that one answer to this is that the profession is encouraging larger units of service and that the one-position library, like the one-room rural school, will pass out of the picture. This is realistic up to a point, but as determining the present prescription for all library schools and all library school graduates, it seems to me to be analogous to saying that we do not need to treat cancer cases now because cancer research will eventually exterminate the disease.

A second library school problem which has not received much attention in recent library education literature is indicated by Miss Ersted and Mr. Henkle. Both refer to the neglect of school libraries

<sup>4</sup>Ralph Munn, *Conditions and Trends in Education for Librarianship*. (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1936).



and special libraries in present library school programs and in proposed programs. Much of the attention of curriculum builders so far has been directed to university, research, and large public library needs.

This leads to the question of basic curriculum versus special curriculum. How much emphasis should be put upon training for work in one of the major types of libraries and how much upon the common core of materials with which all librarians should be familiar? As I read the papers, Miss Ersted and Mr. Henkle feel more strongly about the importance of specialization than Messrs. Munn and Powell do. They each name specific areas both in subject matter and in professional training which should not be neglected in training librarians for work with youth and in special libraries. Mr. Henkle offers a suggestion for a curriculum for special libraries which would slant the illustrations and problems in all courses towards special libraries. This has been done in some schools training school librarians and has much to recommend it. It has all the advantages of the basic curriculum plus integration in a very pervasive way with the problems of the special field.

Several library schools are preparing to clear their skirts of as many of these criticisms as possible. One Type III school is closing its doors this year, which is a step in the right direction according to many leaders. Others have initiated or will initiate changes in curricula and in policy which seem calculated to meet criticism and to improve the personnel of libraries.

The most widely publicized step is the decision in eight schools to award the Master's degree for the fifth year of work. This may help to raise salaries for the profession, for some systems will pay more for a Master's degree than for a Bachelor's degree. It will probably help to raise our prestige slightly, for the majority seem to feel that a person with a Master's degree is on a higher level of attainment.

Along with the Master's degree goes considerable emphasis upon library principles, aims, goals, and functions in society. The "whys" and "wherefores" of techniques and routines will be discussed, but the new librarians will not actually go through the motions as much as most of us did.

Much attention will be paid to the "graduate level of courses." This bewilders me, for so far I have discovered no clear-cut distinc-

tion between graduate and undergraduate courses except the college year in which they are studied. Practically everyone agrees that graduate courses are better than undergraduate courses in library education, but no one bothers to tell you just how a graduate course differs from an undergraduate course. I have the same trouble with "general education." Everybody thinks it is a good thing, but no one can tell you just what it is in language to which others can give complete agreement.

There will be considerable emphasis on books and administration in the new programs, which may meet the charges of the critics that present librarians "do not read" as they used to.

Courses are to be regrouped and reorganized to provide better integration under fewer headings, such as Foundations, Library Resources, Readers and Reading, Methods; or Communication, Evaluation, Interpretation, and Use of Materials in Libraries, and the Library as a Social Institution. Much greater use will also be made of the resources in other departments of the university for rounding out the subject background of library students.

And finally, some schools will experiment with spreading library training over more than one year, beginning in the junior or senior year. Mr. Powell thinks this is a step in the wrong direction, but Miss Ersted approves it.

#### THE NOUN AND VERB CONCEPTS OF LIBRARY EDUCATION

Against this probably incomplete outline of the difficulties and criticisms of the library schools and the solutions offered in the new programs, I invite you to study the assumptions which lie behind the current conception of a library school and its program. I think we shall find that Mr. Munn, Mr. Powell, Mr. Henkle, and Miss Ersted agree fairly well with other leaders in the profession in their basic assumptions, but that they offer suggestions which point to a new emphasis needed in library education which, if followed through systematically, would produce a frequently overlooked and valuable conception of the nature of the library school and its program.

The study of the assumptions in any field is closely connected with a study of the meanings attached to basic terms. There are numerous illustrations in the history of thought that our practical difficulties are often caused by our language. The English language

is much richer in nouns than in verbs, yet many of our key concepts need verbs rather than nouns for their precise expression. Democracy, justice, communism, mind, God are examples of nouns used to express verb or functional concepts. The great danger to clear thinking is that we forget that these are not true nouns as are sugar, stick, or stone. They cannot be defined except in terms of what they do. They cannot be enclosed within a given space or weighed. They are not substances. Using nouns to indicate relationships, functions, actions is like using a large screw driver to repair a tiny watch. It is possible to succeed with luck, but we are likely to break the watch beyond repair and have no means of telling the time of day.

We need considerable analytical work in librarianship on our basic terms before we can begin to straighten out our objectives and our programs for accomplishing these objectives. The trouble is that the basic questions are so simple and the answers seem so obvious that one who ventures to raise these questions is not likely to be taken seriously.

For example, what is a book? We librarians are likely to agree that the answer is: a written or printed narrative or record, or series of such. At least we act as if we thought this were the nature of a book, for we circulate them, count them, arrange them, and use figures derived from these operations as one of our chief measuring rods of library health or disease.

The best account of the "verb nature" of a book known to me is in the *Phaedrus* dialogue by Plato. *Phaedrus* and *Socrates* take a walk in the country and lie down in a shady spot, and *Phaedrus* reads a book by *Lysias* dealing with the question of whether the lover or the nonlover is a better friend. A long discussion follows touching on a large number of subjects from the nature of the soul to the principles of rhetoric. Towards the end *Socrates* makes the following remarks about books:

*SOCRATES.* I cannot help feeling, *Phaedrus*, that writing is unfortunately like painting; for the creations of the painter have the attitude of life, and yet if you ask them a question they preserve a solemn silence. And the same may be said of speeches. You would imagine that they had intelligence, but if you want to know anything and put a question to one of them, the speaker always gives one unvarying answer. And when they have been once written down they are tumbled about anywhere

## PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP: SUMMARY

among those who may or may not understand them, and know not to whom they should reply, to whom not; and, if they are maltreated or abused, they have no parent to protect them; and they cannot protect or defend themselves.

PHAEDRUS. That again is most true.

SOCRATES. Is there not another kind of word or speech far better than this, and having far greater power—a son of the same family, but lawfully begotten?

PHAEDRUS. Whom do you mean, and what is his origin?

SOCRATES. I mean an intelligent word graven in the soul of the learner, which can defend itself, and knows when to speak and when to be silent.<sup>5</sup>

Socrates overlooks the fact that the speech of Lysias was the occasion and the stimulus for whatever intelligent words were graven in the soul of Phaedrus. Parts of Lysias' treatise operate in the discussion as if Lysias were present in person. Any book which can do this is not a dead thing which cannot answer, but a living thing to be reckoned with.

The concept of book should, therefore, be couched in terms of a verb, because it is an active, dynamic concept. The implications for librarianship in a shift from a noun to a verbal concept of book would be important. If books are alive, if they really change the directions of our lives, as we believe, then books have some of the characteristics of persons, and librarianship becomes a matter of knowing different kinds of people in the flesh and in thought. If we accept the verbal concept of book, the book as artifact is not so important as the ideas presented.

If we took the verbal concept of book seriously, our library statistics and reports would change, perhaps along lines similar to the St. Louis Public Library reports where the reader feels that the library and its staff really reach out and touch people. All good libraries do this, but you would seldom discover that they do from our reports. There we generally talk about books as nouns, as so many pieces of material acquired, processed, circulated, withdrawn. We use the language of the Ford assembly line, but we need language that will free both our own minds and those of our public to see what we and books do.

<sup>5</sup> Plato, *The Dialogues*, trans. by Benjamin Jowett (Oxford University Press, 3rd ed., 1892), I, 485.

Similarly, discussion of library education problems might begin with the question: what is a library school? For the past six decades the idea has been gaining ground that the professional education of librarians takes place in library schools. So far as I know, no one has asked what a library school is and expected a serious answer. Doubtless it seems a very simple question, and one which admits of only one answer. Unless I am mistaken, the answer would be: a library school is an institution for the training or education of librarians.

This concept of a library school has all the characteristics of a noun. Its program is generally defined in quantitative terms, such as thirty semester hours of certain courses which are "taken." There is also a certain minimum grade average required which may vary slightly from school to school but is standardized as much as possible within each school. Measurement of student progress is predominantly in terms of grades on written examinations either in course or in comprehensive examinations or in both. Students able to exceed the minimum by certain definite amounts have often been awarded honors. Much stress is laid on the level of courses, graduate courses being considered better than undergraduate. And finally, this period which begins with admission closes with a degree. By and large, the responsibility of the school is considered limited to the period between the selection of the student and his graduation, except for placement in a position.

Let us not forget conferences sponsored by library schools for in-service stimulation of practicing librarians, counseling done by many teachers and deans, occasional prodding by a teacher to get some research out of a former student. Nevertheless, the main show in library education seems to have been conceived as the production of a neatly wrapped package of knowledge evaluated in quantitative terms such as hours of credit and grades, and delivered as a finished product so far as the school is concerned on Commencement Day.

All this follows the American pattern of higher education, and in the case of library schools, must necessarily follow as long as we conceive the library school to be an institution for the training or education of librarians. For this is a definition which gives us a noun, a definite entity distinguished by specific and measurable characteristics from all other entities with which it might be confused.

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Please do not misunderstand me. My position is that this conception is valuable as a starting point, but that it is seriously incomplete and that we cannot make substantial progress in solving the complex problems of library education until we recognize the verbal as well as the noun concept of a library school.

There are many indications in the papers under review that my colleagues on this program accept these basic assumptions, as I do, but there are also several statements which lead me to believe that they do not consider these assumptions sufficient.

Messrs. Munn and Powell, and Miss Ersted all recommend the fifth year for library education. All four papers deal primarily with what the prospective public, academic, school, or special librarian should know. None of them suggests any responsibility of the library schools for education for librarianship prior to matriculation or after graduation.

But there are a number of other points in these papers which do not fit neatly into the assumptions behind the noun concept of the library school. Mr. Munn writes: "We want a public librarian who knows people as the successful salesman, real estate broker, advertising man, hotel clerk, or even the waiter and bellboy know them. We want a public librarian who can think his way through to solutions as problems arise." He also suggests that librarians should be able to fill gaps in their formal training by reading, and ends his paper by saying that "warmth of human understanding, not the chill learning of the scholar, is the public librarian's first qualification."

Mr. Powell has this statement of what he wants: "What we need is more librarians with good humor, good health, imagination, energy, and adaptability." He also indicates the importance of paying attention to both preprofessional and in-service training, but feels these are primarily responsibilities for practicing librarians rather than the schools.

None of these points fits too well with the basic assumptions of the noun concept of the library school as an institution for the training or education of librarians. How can the schools develop a warmth of human understanding in one year? How can they be sure on the basis of transcripts, entrance tests, and interviews that the applicant has this quality at entrance? How can we be certain that a student who passes reference with an A on all examinations will be able to

think his way through to solutions as problems arise? How can we be sure that our library school graduates have self-starters that will work all through life? No institution with set time limits of residence could be sure of any of these points.

Suppose we repeat our question—What is a library school?—and this time begin with the assumption that the library school is designed to reduce significantly the time needed to develop effective librarians. It is not an institution; rather it is a group of people who try to institute and/or develop in other people the habits, attitudes, and directions of growth that are essential to the maturation of professional librarians.

This verbal concept has important implications which include, but go beyond, the implications of the noun concept of the library school.

The key implication is that the center of attention shifts from subject matter to people—faculty and students. A group of people—the faculty, not an institution—will be interested not only in what the student knows, but also in what he can do with what he knows. The two are not identical. They will be even more interested in his habits, attitudes, and directions of growth, for it is far more important, as well as more difficult, to graduate people who have the ability to educate themselves than it is to know what they can do with what they know at graduation. The major question for Commencement Day is: How well is this prospective librarian equipped for staying alive and growing professionally?

A second implication of the verbal concept of the library school is that its responsibility cannot be limited to any set period. Its responsibility for library education reaches back to grammar school and forward to the retirement of the librarian. Before Mr. Munn accuses me of adding to the rash of impractical ideas, I hasten to add that this is a fantastic proposition unless we broaden our conception of a library school faculty. With this dynamic concept of the library school, every practicing librarian is a member of an enlarged library school faculty. The verbal library school must prepare practicing librarians to accept this responsibility.

### SHIFTS IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

How would a library school program worked out with these ideas in mind differ from the present schemes? I have a feeling that some

schools would not have to change very much in their present thinking. The content of the curriculum would not be significantly different. The main areas of subject matter needed have been reviewed many times and I believe there is considerable agreement. If some schools experiment with new courses and arrangements, the profession should be enriched rather than impoverished with new viewpoints and knowledge.

The chief shifts as I see them would be changes in emphasis along the following lines:

1. More attention to the individual student and his social and personal as well as his intellectual needs before admission, during his library school career, and in active service. With respect to the library school period, the faculty might raise such questions as:

- a. Does this student need each prescribed course in the curriculum? A system of achievement tests for those who can pass them creditably would eliminate much of the present criticism that library school courses are too elementary and repetitious. The student, freed of "taking" a course that he knows, would study some other field which he does not know.
- b. What does the student do with his leisure? Does he know how to play profitably? Does he take advantage spontaneously of the cultural, social, and community activities available in most cities where the schools are located? Does he take any exercise? Can his interests be broadened or deepened?
- c. What does the student read on his own time and how may his reading patterns be improved?
- d. Does the student tackle new fields both enthusiastically and intelligently, or does he have to be prodded out of a rut?
- e. What are his attitudes towards his fellow students and their attitudes towards him? How may these be improved?
- f. How well can he evaluate evidence and test assumptions?
- g. Can he profit from criticism?

2. A field-work period carrying credit, carefully and cooperatively planned by library school faculty and practicing librarians to develop an understanding of what goes on in a library, to study library problems in a concrete situation, to encourage self-evaluation of strengths and weaknesses, to test theories presented in the classroom, to show the unity of the library school course, to give the "feel" of



library service, to provide contact with active libraries, and to develop confidence, poise, and professional enthusiasm.

Field work may provide the most effective single evaluative device for the library school that is interested in what its students can do with what they know, and with their ability to learn on the job in later years. If well done, it involves an enormous amount of thought, planning, and supervision on the part of both faculty and practicing librarians. I was as skeptical of the values of field work as anyone in the profession before my experience with the Geneseo program showed me the sizeable dividends that it can pay towards the professional maturation of the majority of students.

3. Organization of prelibrary school and postlibrary school educational functions. Primary dependence must be put upon practicing librarians to carry out the program, but the program itself should be worked out cooperatively by school and practitioners. Students would have to be prepared for these functions while in library school.

The prelibrary school phase of library education is harder to visualize than the postlibrary school program. It certainly involves much more than recruitment, as Mr. Powell points out. Since the personal qualities needed by effective librarians are the same as for any other effective person who has to work with people, anything a practicing librarian can do to improve the health and personal adjustments of young people will benefit all professions and occupations. Guidance in selection of courses, mentioned by both Miss Ersted and Mr. Powell, and the stimulation of reading and study habits are two areas which are important in the guidance of future librarians.

If we are really serious in our desire to create more effective librarians, both library school faculties and practicing librarians must plan cooperative personnel programs which are designed to develop all the latent abilities of librarians throughout their working years. Such a program, together with the field-work course, should help to keep library school faculties in touch with the field and would also make possible the testing of instructional theories. It would keep practicing librarians *au courant* with library school problems, which is as important as the more often-mentioned need for library school people to have contact with the field. It should also operate to make criticism of the schools by practicing librarians more effective, for they would be partners in the educational show.

The new programs for the Master's degree are announced as experimental. The libraries of the nation are their only true laboratories for the experiment, and thought should be given to measuring the success or failure of the new courses and programs outside the walls of the schools.

There are several possible lines of attack on this double problem of keeping librarians alive and growing in their jobs and furnishing experimental evidence of the degree of success of the new programs and techniques. One would be to devise a rating scale designed to discover the weaknesses and strengths in the new librarian during his first year on the job. This rating scale would not only identify weaknesses and strengths, but would also try to arrive at the causes, as for example, teaching methods, materials presented, guidance, or other phases of the library school program.

Another line of approach to the problem of keeping alive professionally is the principle of rotation of jobs. In many cases the catalog might be improved if the catalogers spent some time at the reference desk, and the change might be helpful to many reference workers also.

Promotion of an excellent person to a position outside the library when inside promotion is impossible seems a desperate measure to harassed administrators, but in many cases this policy would benefit both the library and the librarian affected. There is nothing more sour than a good librarian in a dead-end. Library schools could assist in remedying such situations if they had better knowledge of how their graduates were developing. They should be constantly on the search for new situations where specific graduates may develop their abilities. Low salaries are not the only cause of discontent; some librarians want a more challenging job, as much or more than they want more salary.

Even within the same position, the alert administrator who is genuinely interested in his staff can often assign new and interesting duties which keep the person growing professionally. Many of the librarians in the worst ruts today could probably have been salvaged if their supervisor had had imagination a few years back. It seems probable that many promising young people elect some other profession not entirely because of our low salaries and prestige, but because they know librarians who are discouraged in their jobs or who find them deadly dull.

4. The chief factor determining the success or failure of any educational program is the teacher. In such a library school as has been outlined teaching ability is more important than in a school where publications and other scholarly attainments are the chief criterion of excellence. I am not particularly impressed by the evidence cited to show that library school teachers are poor *as teachers* because of their lack of higher academic degrees. The five teachers in my experience whom I would rate the best do not possess one earned Doctorate among them. Each of them is a master teacher using his full power to develop to the hilt the abilities of the fortunate students who come in contact with them. They strike sparks in their students which light fires that burn for years.

The library school which pays as much attention as I have indicated to the all-round development of its students both during and after library school will have to select teachers on the basis of teaching and personnel ability rather than the mere possession of higher degrees. Superior teaching ability requires knowledge of the subject, but it also requires imagination in high degree to adapt teaching procedures to the students under instruction. It involves the constant search for better methods of encouraging students to learn for themselves, to evaluate evidence, to test ideas. An excellent teacher is rarer than a Ph.D.

5. The chief job of the administrator of the library school described will be to find excellent teachers. His next job will be to keep them alive. They need time to prepare course materials, time to work with individual students, time to visit libraries, and regular periods of active work as members of a library staff. They also need to be promoted either inside or outside the school. They need to be encouraged to exchange with other teachers the trade secrets that have worked well. They must be encouraged to attend meetings of library organizations, even if occasionally the director of the school has to stay home on the job and teach some classes. Above all, they need praise.

The verbal concept of the library school bears directly upon the problems of the profession listed above. The philosophy behind the concept is that librarianship is a service profession. The goal of librarianship is to mate people and ideas in every way that will produce fruitful marriages. If we could make this idea come alive in

our daily work, we would not long experience abnormal difficulties with recruitment, with prestige, or with salaries. I believe our best chance of better success in the future than in the past—and we should not discount our past successes—is to focus our attention on the problems of developing more librarians who have the capacity to grow both in knowledge and in usefulness. If we were to work as a united profession towards this goal, we might be able to develop librarians with the vision and the stamina to go beyond their teachers, which is the goal of all education. Taking liberties with Plato, we may say that librarians in greater numbers must in a very real sense become teachers, and library school teachers in greater numbers must become librarians, if the library world is to be perfected.



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## *Special Problems*

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# Advanced Study and Research in Librarianship

BERNARD BERELSON

IT HAS ALWAYS seemed to me that the readers of a prepared paper have not been given altogether fair treatment, in that they have been exposed only to the end result of the speaker's period of travail and not to the process by which, for good or ill, he came to that particular end result. Such papers usually sound as though they could hardly have been different. And yet anyone who has ever prepared a paper knows how misleading an impression that really is. The speaker has endlessly added and omitted, amended and modified, organized and reorganized, revised and rerevised, all out of sight of his readers. The process recalls the familiar figure of the iceberg; only the speaker knows how much of his effort is submerged. In the belief that an outline of the whole should sometimes be visible, I should like to begin by relating something of the biography of this particular paper in the hope that you can understand the adolescent better if you know something of its infancy.

When I, as organizer of this Conference, invited myself, as Dean of the Graduate Library School, to speak on this topic, I thought I was taking a relatively easy spot on the program. After all, this is a circumscribed and limited area in education for librarianship; there is little advanced training in the profession and less research. Other speakers could be expected to contribute to solutions of educational problems involving hundreds of students every year and some forty accredited schools. Whatever I might find to say could apply to only five library schools and to the education of a few tens of relatively mature students. In any case, after a period of years as a graduate student in librarianship, months as an instructor, and weeks as a dean, I did have a few vaguely formulated notions about advanced study and research in librarianship, and I thought that I might even develop a few more under the constant and stimulating pressure of



my faculty colleagues. Anyway, that was February, and August was a long way off!

Any of you who have ever had to meet a deadline will not need to be told how quickly August arrived—or how slowly ideas came. And then, when I reviewed the literature on this topic, I began to find my notions on the matter in one or another—or rather, one *and* another—of the major documents: Williamson, Reece, Munn, Wilson, Carnovsky, Pierce, Metcalf-Russell-Osborn, Wheeler, White, Danton.<sup>1</sup> Should I discuss the *need* for graduate study in librarianship? Munn and Carnovsky had fought that one out, and at least White and Danton and Metcalf-Russell-Osborn had got in a few punches lately. What about the *relative value* of the advanced degree in librarianship as against the subject degree? Most of the arguments were made by several writers in two symposia.<sup>2</sup> What of the necessity for broad and deep *integration* of library training at this level within the total university? Again Wilson and Danton and White had gone before. What about the *quality of the faculty*? The criticisms which Williamson had *not* made in 1923, Wilson supplied in 1937 and Danton brought up to date in 1946.

<sup>1</sup> Charles C. Williamson, *Training for Library Service: a Report Prepared for the Carnegie Corporation of New York* (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1923).

Ralph Munn, *Conditions and Trends in Education for Librarianship* (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1936).

Ernest J. Reece, *The Curriculum in Library Schools* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1936).

Louis R. Wilson, "The American Library School Today," in *Library Quarterly*, VII (1937), 211-45.

Leon Carnovsky, "Why Graduate Study in Librarianship?", in *Library Quarterly*, VII (1937), 246-61.

Helen F. Pierce, *Graduate Study in Librarianship in the United States* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1941).

Keyes D. Metcalf, John Dale Russell, and Andrew D. Osborn, *The Program of Instruction in Library Schools* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1943).

Joseph L. Wheeler, *Progress and Problems in Education for Librarianship* (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1946).

Carl M. White, *Developing the School of Library Service*. Report of the Dean, School of Library Service (New York, Columbia University, 1947).

J. Periam Danton, *Education for Librarianship: Criticisms, Dilemmas, and Proposals* (New York: School of Library Service, Columbia University, 1946).

<sup>2</sup> "Essentials in the Training of University Librarians: a Symposium" (with Louis R. Wilson, Sydney B. Mitchell, C. C. Williamson, Robert J. Kerner, Nathan van Patten, and Carl M. White), in *College and Research Libraries*, I (1939), 13-38.

"Librarians' Degrees: a Symposium" (with William H. Carlson, Eugene H. Wilson, Harriet D. MacPherson, Charles V. Park, and Lucy E. Fay), in *College and Research Libraries*, VI (1945), 264-78.

If I could not hope to produce any "new" ideas about advanced study in librarianship, what then? What alternatives were left? One possibility, of course, was to go back through this distressingly complete body of literature and find something to criticize in what everyone else had said. This procedure, sanctioned and even glorified by academic tradition, was barred to me because it, too, had already been done. Implicitly or explicitly, Wilson had criticized Williamson, Carnovsky had criticized Munn, White had criticized Wilson, Metcalf-Russell-Osborn had criticized Carnovsky, and Danton had criticized almost everybody. That seemed to me a particularly good arena to avoid. The other possibility, making a virtue of necessity, was to adopt the positive policy *not* to say anything new. Instead, why not review the past and present status of advanced study and research in librarianship, locate whatever guideposts for the future are visible, provide some more or less basic facts about the topic, and make no attempt to advance the argument otherwise? That is what I intend to do.

By "advanced study" I mean the formal educational program beyond the first professional course of study. Until the very recent past, with the introduction of the Master's degree as the first professional degree by Denver, Chicago, Illinois, Columbia, Louisiana State, the Carnegie Institute, Texas, and perhaps others, this has meant the educational programs leading to the Master's degree and the Doctor's degree in librarianship. By "research" I mean, briefly, the collection and analysis of original data on a problem of librarianship, done within the schools according to scientific and scholarly standards. Within this context I shall discuss the topic under three main heads—the causes, the characteristics, and the consequences of advanced training and research in librarianship. The first is intended to answer the "why?", the second the "what is it?", and the third the "so what?"

#### THE CAUSES OF ADVANCED STUDY AND RESEARCH IN LIBRARIANSHIP

In outlining briefly the reasons which can be and have been offered to explain why we have advanced study in librarianship, I do not mean to repeat the history so readily available elsewhere<sup>3</sup>—the history of

<sup>3</sup> For example, see Louis R. Wilson, "The American Library School Today," and Helen F. Pierce, *Graduate Study in Librarianship in the United States*, cited in (note 1).

Williamson's 1923 recommendations of specialized training in the second year; of the first report of the Board of Education for Librarianship in 1925 and the establishment of the Master's degree shortly thereafter at California, Columbia, Illinois, and Michigan; of the 1923 memorandum of the Chicago Library Club and the subsequent establishment of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago. Rather, I wish to abstract the major factors which led to this development. It seems to me that there are three reasons for the fact of advanced training in librarianship. Two of them are traditional and accepted. The third is neither traditional nor accepted, but it is, I think, nonetheless true.

The first two reasons, of course, involve *the educational* and *the critical functions* of advanced study in librarianship. One purpose of advanced training is to train—that is, to transmit to the student a body of knowledge and of technique about the subject to which he had been insufficiently exposed during his first period of professional training, or not exposed at all. This assumes not only that there is such material not covered in the first period, but that it is desirable material for the student to know. These assumptions are usually rationalized in terms of the specialization of advanced training. Almost no one argues for advanced study in order to give the student the same kind of content that he got in the beginning professional course, only more of it. Instead, the argument is that advanced training in librarianship is, or should be, a specialized program based upon the general program given the beginner, but going beyond it in some particular sphere of librarianship. Specialized in what? "School libraries, college and university libraries, library work with children, library administration, cataloging and classification, county and rural library work, and business libraries," said Williamson twenty-five years ago.<sup>4</sup> With a few additions—public libraries, bibliographical history, special librarianship of different kinds—that is still the list today. And there are strong emphases within it, on academic librarianship, library administration, and library work with children and young people.

By and large, the advanced training program seems designed to produce administrators in libraries, library supervisors rather than

<sup>4</sup> Charles C. Williamson, *Training for Library Service* (Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1923), p. 143.

library assistants. Presumably it was the felt need for such trained personnel which stimulated the development of the advanced programs in the five schools. Does this mean that no satisfactory administrators were or are developed outside this program of professional education? Of course not. Advanced training was designed to develop a group of library administrators through a systematic program of education in certain areas of librarianship rather than through the longer, fortuitous, and probably more expensive system of education which we call experience. The point is often overlooked, it seems to me, that advanced professional training, properly administered, is not *opposed* to experience; it is built upon professional experience—everybody's experience—and systematically so. As such, and again if properly administered, it should be better than experience.

Thus, the transmission of certain professional knowledge and techniques is *one* reason for advanced training in librarianship, just as it is *the* reason for the beginning professional course. The other traditional reason is the need for a critical approach to librarianship. The profession needs not only recruits who know what is accepted as a basic body of knowledge and technique in librarianship, but it also needs trained students who can effectively criticize, add to, and improve that body of knowledge and technique. It is an important function of advanced study and research in librarianship to be critical. If they fulfill their responsibilities to the profession, the schools properly discharge this function in three ways.

In the first place, they do so in their teaching program. Techniques, processes, practices, ideas—in short, the ends and means of contemporary librarianship which are taken for granted in the beginning courses should be subject to critical attention in the advanced program. This is a matter both of the content and the method of advanced training. The content should be more searching and revealing; and since at best the content will necessarily be limited both by what we *now* know and by the time the student can spend in school, the methods of advanced training should develop in the student the capacity to be intelligently critical, that is, to grow intellectually in the field. In short, the program should not only give the student certain information but should develop in him certain skills.

The second way in which the schools discharge their responsibility

to be critical of the profession is by applying to the field the principles and knowledge developed within the profession through the means of surveys conducted by their faculties and trained students. In recent years there have been tens of surveys of going libraries and library systems to which advanced study and research in librarianship have effectively contributed. This method of exercising the critical function has one important feature: it focuses the attention of both academicians and practitioners upon a common problem.

The third way in which the schools perform this critical function is through the conduct of basic research on the problems of librarianship, broadly defined. Surveys are not research. Surveys involve the application of general principles to specific situations; research develops new general principles or modifies and refines old ones, or tries to. The schools have a special responsibility for this form of criticism of librarianship precisely because no one else is doing it, and someone should. This often does not add to the schools' popularity or reputation within the profession, but that unfortunate condition—arising from misunderstanding of purpose—must not be allowed to stand in the way of research development. The process of asking basic questions about librarianship and searching for valid, reliable, and objective answers is desirable and necessary.

In these ways advanced study and research in librarianship seek to fulfill the critical function within the profession—not for the sake of criticism, but for the improvement of professional practice. Those who criticize the exercise of this critical function seem to feel that the practice of librarianship as they learned it, plus the modifications suggested by their particular situations, equals Utopia. Unfortunately, Utopia is not gained so easily, except by definition. The profession should understand—and probably does—that the transmission of current accepted practice is not the *only* function for a system of library education. In addition, any such system is also responsible for changing current practice in desirable directions through the exercise of free intelligence and trained skill applied to professional problems.<sup>5</sup>

The third reason for advanced study and research in librarianship stems from the growing professionalism of the profession, or rather

<sup>5</sup> This implies that the new Master's program should contain material of a genuine graduate character and not represent simply a change in the degree structure for its own sake. The profession should not accept simply an upgrading in degrees, with the new Master's degree given for the old Bachelor's content, etc.

from the growing self-awareness of that professionalism. The history and the sociology of professions identify certain periods in the development of particular intellectual activities at which the practitioners become especially self-conscious of their status and position and seek means of self-expression. Such a period occurred in American librarianship in 1876, and again, I think, during the late 1920's. The circumstances were favorable—a great expansion of the public library was under way; there were sharply increasing numbers of librarians in practice; librarians were winning their way into the college and university hierarchy—and the profession began to see greater vistas of service opening before it. One method of realizing such promises and potentialities was to institutionalize them in a system of advanced training, even including the Doctorate, “just like the other professions.” To some, this may seem a matter of professional imperialism and an exhibition of professional pride; and perhaps it was. In any case, however, the profession was proclaiming, through the establishment of advanced training, that it had reached a new state, that it was sufficiently important and complex and knowledgeable to support—nay, require—a refinement and an extension of its educational program. By calling attention to this *symbolic function* of advanced training, I do not, of course, mean to detract from the legitimacy of the transmittal and the critical functions. The three of them, I think, account for the establishment of advanced study and research in librarianship.

#### THE CHARACTERISTICS OF ADVANCED STUDY AND RESEARCH IN LIBRARIANSHIP

Now for the characteristics of advanced study and research in librarianship: what are its distinguishing features; of what is advanced training composed; under what conditions is research in librarianship currently carried out?

As everyone knows, advanced training in librarianship is currently offered by five schools—California, Chicago, Columbia, Illinois, and Michigan. All five have conferred the Master's degree (old style) and one of them—the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago—has conferred the Ph.D. degree. The current curricular changes will affect this degree structure, since the Master's degree is now becoming the first professional degree in many institutions. Partly

in reaction to this basic revision in library education and partly for other reasons, two schools (Columbia and Illinois) have already announced the inauguration of Doctoral programs in librarianship, the former with the Ph.D. and the latter with the D.L.S.<sup>6</sup> Under the new system, what will happen to the student who formerly completed the B.L.S., worked a period of years, then returned for the Master's degree in librarianship? The answer of the schools, I think, would be something like this: (1) the student will get a fuller and better professional education under the new Master's program than under the old Bachelor's program, to start with; (2) the student can always return to work for the Doctorate, with increased facilities now available; and (3) for those students who do not have sufficient inclination, time, money, energy, or ability for a Doctoral program, the schools will provide course training of various kinds, without degree. Another way of putting this is that under the new program, the intermediate degree formerly represented by the Master's is out.

There have been five schools (out of some forty accredited schools) offering advanced training; how much advanced training has there been? Over the past ten years, out of a total of some ten thousand library degrees, about seven hundred, or 7 per cent, were Master's and Doctor's degrees. All of the Doctorates have come from one school, and 80 per cent of the Master's from three schools—Michigan, Columbia, and Illinois, in that order. The Master's degrees, of course, far outnumber the Ph.D.'s; of all the *advanced* degrees, fully 95 per cent are Master's. This means that in an average year—and in this case, there is such constancy that almost every year (of the past ten) is average—about sixty-five Master's degrees are awarded and about four Doctor's. These seventy chosen people, then, are available to the hundreds of public, academic, school, and special libraries which may have need of them. Is this number of students with advanced training too few for the profession, too many, or about the right number? Whatever the answer, the holders of advanced degrees have had no difficulty in being absorbed by the profession. At the

<sup>6</sup> Perhaps one of the limitations of the Doctorate program in librarianship in this country has been its inbred tendencies, because of the prominent role of the Graduate Library School. This is a good opportunity to welcome the School of Library Service of Columbia University and the University of Illinois Library School into the field. However, the profession should recognize the heavy costs and faculty requirements of programs of Doctoral study and research, and the field should not be overexpanded at the expense of quality.

same time, an important fact must be noted: over the past fifteen years, advanced training in librarianship has not grown. There has been hardly a percentage point of change in the proportion of graduate degrees, and very little change in absolute numbers. This circumstance, however, should not be interpreted to mean that this is all the advanced training in librarianship that the profession needs.

What do the advanced students get? What is the content of advanced study in librarianship? Is it the same as the first year program, only more and "higher"? Does one learn how to use the *World Almanac* during the first year and then graduate to obscure government documents in his advanced training, or move from the author entry for fiction to the corporate entry with analytics? Or does the content fulfill the objective of professional criticism which is presumably one of its purposes? To my mind there are only two sure answers to these questions. The first is that the educational programs of the five schools are uneven in this respect, and the second is that no one quite knows for certain just exactly what is taught in the graduate courses in the various schools. Someone may know for *each* school, but no one knows for all of them. It is easy to learn what courses are *offered*, simply by reading course descriptions in the school catalogs, but there is often some disparity between the course description in the catalog and that contained in the student's notebook. In other words, the precise content of the advanced programs of the schools remains to be set down before definitive answers can be given to questions like those posed above.

However, it does seem that some schools at least are doing more than more of the same. The programs, which range from an offering of thirty-five courses in one school to nine apparently quite different courses at another, do contain several courses not generally found in the traditional first-year curriculum. Such courses deal with administrative principles and practices for various types of libraries, with the findings and methods of communication research, with the theoretical aspects of cataloging and classification, with research methods in librarianship, with audio-visual aids in library service, with the resources of American libraries, with the history and theory of scholarship, with the government of the American public library, with library surveys and planning, with the evaluation of library service for children and young people, with problems in the con-



struction of library buildings, with international library relations, and with various specialized and advanced topics in bibliographical and library history. The offerings are spread over a variety of fields and interests, with major concentrations in administration (19 courses at the five schools in 1947-48), technical processes (15), library service to children and young people (13), bibliography (12), and history of printing, books, and libraries (11); and with minor emphasis upon such topics as reading and communication (5), research methods in librarianship (5), the library and society (2), and education for librarianship (2). Two areas appear relatively neglected in the curricula—areas which are currently among the most active and vigorous in the entire profession: special librarianship, on the one hand, and rural and regional librarianship and extension work on the other (assuming at the moment that there is something unique to each of these which needs to be taught). If one may judge from course descriptions, some stimulating and provocative, and even pioneering, teaching has been and is being done.

But the courses *in* the schools constitute only a part of advanced training in librarianship. All the schools encourage the student to take some of his work in other departments of the university; this is what is meant by "integrating the school into the total university." There can be no question that this is a laudable plan: the public librarian can profit from work in sociology and political science, the academic librarian from education, the school librarian from child psychology, the special librarian from his subject specialty. The important question is, to what extent is this plan actually followed? How much work do the Master's and Doctor's candidates take outside the school in other departments? During the academic year 1947-48, about half of such students took some work in other parts of the university, but only about 20 per cent of their total courses were in other departments. Whether this ratio of one outside course in every five is sufficiently high is a matter of personal judgment. To my mind, the outside departments have more to offer advanced study in librarianship than that.

To some extent advanced study in librarianship implies research in librarianship. I say "to some extent" because not all advanced study in the profession has required the production of a thesis and because not all theses represent research undertakings. The compila-

tion of a bibliography or the expansion of a classification scheme, however useful, do not fit the usual definition of research. As I have said, that requires the systematic collection and analysis of original data, and it results in something of a contribution to what is known about the subject. It can be carried out at the Master's level, and should or must be at the Doctor's level. My remarks, which here deal only with research in librarianship as part of the educational program, will focus upon the nature and quality of current research. This can be discussed under two major headings—the subject matter of such research and the methods. What are the studies about? How well are they done? From my limited knowledge of such investigations, I would summarize by saying that the subject matter is spotty and that the methods are often less than satisfactory. I think I know *why* the second and *what to do* about the first.

It is not surprising that research in librarianship (as in other fields outside the natural sciences) is spotty; it would be surprising if it were not. Students come to their investigations out of varying backgrounds and with varying interests and abilities; and under the influence of faculty members of varying degrees of stimulation, they select thesis topics. As one result, some areas within the field have received more attention and some less. (Whether any areas have received *enough* attention is another question.) The fields of reading and library history perhaps represent the former, library administration and certain technical processes the latter. In addition, there is considerable unevenness of development *within* broad areas, deriving from certain personal or topical interests which divert attention from basic problems and which shift away from certain areas just when they are opening up. Although an argument can be made for a *laissez faire* development of research in librarianship, a better one can be made, in my opinion, for a planned-research economy. This would designate the research problems of first importance (to be done first) and it would provide for the continuity and the coral-like development of genuine scientific activity. How is this desirable state to be realized? Obviously, we cannot depend upon chance. What we can depend upon is the faculties of the schools concerned with, or responsible for, research in librarianship. They can, and to my mind should, prepare general statements of long-range research programs within which framework students (and faculty, too) can

work on specific interrelated research projects.<sup>7</sup> In my judgment, such planning should be organized at the level of the schools because it is at the schools that the work will largely be done. In this way, the school might bring to bear its maximum resources in the most effective and economical manner—and for the greater good.

Such an integrated program might also have its desirable effects upon the methods of investigation, since it would tend to bring faculty and students into greater collaboration on research projects. What else can be done to improve the technical aspects of library research over the short run is difficult to say. That is because of the factors accounting for the present deficiencies. Briefly, they are two. (1) Most students come to scientific research in librarianship from an academic background which does not prepare them for this specialized activity. Most students are majors in the humanities and they must do their investigation with methods for the most part developed by and characterizing the social sciences. Students have found that Chaucer and the chi-square test in statistics may not be far apart in the dictionary, but they are in experience. And (2) advanced students simply cannot learn enough about research methods in the time available. It is ludicrous to think that the student can learn enough in one course, plus what he picked up on research methods in subject courses, to enable him to conduct a creditable research study; and yet we operate on that assumption. One result is that the student learns more in the process of his own investigation than he knew before—which is all to the good; and another is that his own study is not technically distinguished. I do not mean that the studies are impossibly done; I only suggest that they could be much better, and the problem of making them so is anything but easy.

### THE CONSEQUENCES OF ADVANCED STUDY AND RESEARCH IN LIBRARIANSHIP

We have discussed the *why* and the *what* of advanced training and research in librarianship. Now we come to the most critical question of all: *so what?* What are its consequences, intended or unintended? Of all the various consequences that might be noted, I should like to

<sup>7</sup> There is no question here of "forcing" topics upon unwilling students. In the first place, students would not be required to work on the indicated project, and in the second place, to put it mildly, students are typically not unwilling to receive suggestions for thesis topics from faculty members.

mention certain results for three groups—for the students, for the schools, and for the profession.

The first consequence for the students is just what it should be: they learn something. They may not learn everything the instructor means to teach them, or the instructor may not try to teach them everything he should, but they do learn something. In at least some of the advanced schools, that something is of two kinds, and the second is no less important than the first. First, they learn certain content which will aid them in performing the tasks of librarianship more effectively; particularly, they learn a good deal about the relationship of librarianship to other disciplines, so that they are much better equipped to converse with and understand scholars and administrators in other fields. They can maintain discussions on the other man's terms. Secondly, they learn (or should learn) a method of thinking about the tasks and the problems of librarianship. Since students cannot be taught the rules governing *all* the situations with which they may be confronted in their professional careers—even assuming that such rules were available to be taught, which they are not—they must be equipped with some way of meeting those situations in a sensible and sensitive manner as they arise. That involves the training of a critical capacity about the problems of librarianship. The schools have the definite responsibility of developing this capacity, and some of them have been successful with at least some of their students.

The second consequence for the students is that they get good jobs in librarianship. Advanced training operates as an extremely effective springboard for upward mobility in the profession. On the basis of the record, one of the best ways for the young librarian to move ahead in the field is to return to school for additional training. The 1946-48 Master's and Doctor's from the five schools, for example, filled these positions: 32 per cent are the head librarians in their institutions, 59 per cent hold major positions (e.g., department heads), and only 9 per cent hold minor positions. Although comparable data are not available, this distribution is almost certainly higher than the corresponding list of positions held by librarians of the same age and sex (and perhaps capability). And, of course, since the advanced students get better jobs, they also make more money. The Master's degree holders from one school are now making 210 per

cent of their salary level when they entered the school; some of this is inflation, but by no means all. The Ph.D.'s in librarianship now make an average salary of nearly 300 per cent of their salary at admission. When the fifty or so currently active Ph.D.'s came to the Graduate Library School, ten were head librarians and now twenty-eight are; thirteen held minor positions and now none of them do. This record may be due to several factors. The advanced schools may attract the better people within the profession who could get ahead anyway; more men take advanced training; the degree itself may be worth something; or perhaps the graduate is simply a better librarian for positions of supervision and leadership. Whatever the reason, however, there can be little doubt: advanced training in librarianship is about as good an investment as the young librarian can make.

The major consequences for the schools are also twofold. First, advanced study and research in librarianship, when properly administered, have the effect of vitalizing the school, of keeping it plastic, curious, alert, alive. This comes about partly through the discharge of the critical function by which the school has the responsibility to question, experiment, investigate, and propose. Partly it comes about through the pressure of the student body—for the most part mature librarians who refer what they are told in classrooms to what their experience tells them, often to the discomfiture of one or the other. Partly it comes about through the mutual educational process in which the members of the faculty engage; anyone who has heard a faculty in a lively discussion of a thesis proposal will know what I have in mind. Partly it is the result of the greater integration of the advanced school into the framework of the university with a correspondingly greater enrichment of its professional activity. For all these reasons, the schools benefit from advanced training by virtue of its stimulating effect.

The second consequence for the schools is that potentially, and in some cases actually, they exert more influence upon the profession. They do so through their advanced students and their research programs. In this way the effect of the teachers upon the conduct of professional activities is relatively strong as compared with the doers. That is, people who are paid to think about and study library service come to have considerable influence, either directly or indi-

rectly, upon the people paid to administer library service. As a result the schools bear a correspondingly heavy obligation to see that their influence is healthy and beneficial. Advanced study and research in librarianship have put them into positions of increased power, and with it comes increased responsibility.

The third set of consequences of advanced training and research in librarianship accrue to the profession. Here, again, there are two major results to which I would like to call attention. The first is the increment to the profession of trained personnel with broad educational orientation. The extent to which the profession has accepted these graduates is suggested by the data describing the positions now held by them. Especially at the Doctorate level have the students with advanced training made an impressive impact.<sup>8</sup> The profession generally recognizes, I think, the substantial contributions made, and to be made, by the younger group of university librarians—McDiarmid at Minnesota, Ellsworth at Iowa, Miller at Indiana, Fussler at Chicago, Swank at Stanford, McCarthy at Cornell, Powell at Duke, Purdy at Wayne; and by an influential group of library educators—Carnovsky, Shera, and Henne at Chicago; Danton and Merritt at California; Martin and Tauber at Columbia; Goldhor and Phelps at Illinois; Stieg at Southern California; Jones at Atlanta.

The important point here is not so much the contribution of such people; they are persons of ability and most of them would have made their marks sooner or later. My point is that with the aid of advanced training, they made it sooner. This group of university librarians, for example, were administering major institutions in their 30's; one of them has become President of the American Library Association in his 30's, about 15 to 20 years younger than

<sup>8</sup> Some attention should be paid, I suppose, to the traditional argument that many men have served as university librarians without advanced training in librarianship. Of course this is true; an able man can certainly become an able librarian. However, that does not settle the matter. The question is not, can someone serve successfully as a library administrator without formal training; it is rather, can advanced training contribute to the effectiveness of the library administrator. In this connection (1) the record shows that some library administrators without formal training were pretty bad; I venture to suggest that no Ph.D. in librarianship is as poor a library administrator as some of them; (2) some library administrators without formal training have relied heavily upon assistants with formal training; and (3) some library administrators without formal training have taken time on the job to learn what they needed to know; they got their education the hard way—sometimes hard for their staffs and their institutions as well as themselves.

the average American Library Association president over the past two decades. A former student at the Doctorate level has become Executive Secretary of the American Library Association at an early age. Their names are often found on the title pages of library surveys sooner than they would otherwise have appeared. In other words, advanced training has brought such Doctoral graduates into full service some ten to fifteen years *before* they presumably would have reached such positions otherwise, with all that implies in terms of new ideas and useful vigor. This is a central contribution of advanced training to the profession: it has provided a means for accelerating and facilitating the recognition and the realization of ability. It has added a decade of maximum usefulness to many careers. As the field fills out, this increment may decrease somewhat, but the major result will be maintained. Advanced study means additional years of top-level service.

But advanced study has made this contribution only to particular parts of the profession. Of all the advanced-degree holders in 1946-48, 75 per cent went into academic librarianship and only 12 per cent into public librarianship. Of all the still-active Ph.D.'s, 45 per cent are in academic libraries and 41 per cent in library schools; only 8 per cent work in public libraries. To a large extent, advanced students come from academic libraries, and not from public libraries. This is mainly due to the greater appreciation given advanced degrees on the campus than on Main Street, in money or in kind—mainly, but not entirely. In addition, there seems to be a feeling in the profession that advanced study is not appropriate or useful to public librarianship. This feeling I should like directly to counter. There is no important reason, in my judgment, why advanced training cannot make as effective a contribution, in personnel and in insight, to public librarianship as to academic librarianship. This is a major neglected area in American library education.

Just as the major consequence of advanced training in librarianship is the increment in personnel, so the major consequence of research in librarianship for the profession generally is the increment of knowledge which it has provided. Whether that increment is considered impressive or disappointing depends, of course, upon the standards by which it is evaluated. In my judgment, it is *both* impressive and disappointing. It is impressive in some of its specific productions and in the light of the general handicaps under which it

was produced. It is disappointing when viewed against the possibilities and the need. On the whole, there is a favorable balance.

There is often a skepticism, or at least a question, as to what the educational research program in librarianship has really accomplished. The suggestion has been made that it is largely academic busywork. What has been learned from theses and dissertations? Just as a sample, from recent studies at one school with which I am familiar, we have learned (in each case under certain specified conditions) what the residents of an unserved rural area think about the establishment of public library service; what effect the librarian's political attitudes have upon his selection of books on controversial political issues; how much difference is introduced into book selection through personal reviewing by staff members, as against reliance upon published reviews; how much control over library services is exercised by state library agencies; whether exposure to communication materials changes people's political attitudes; whether the rigorous state controls in late seventeenth-century Europe blocked the international exchange of knowledge; how small a "satisfactory" library unit can be; how much duplication in the holdings of current publications of political science there was in five large metropolitan libraries and how much discrimination in such holdings there was among scholarly monographs, textbooks, and popularizations; what changes in the pattern of use of the research literature of physics and chemistry occurred in this country during the twentieth century; whether the functional, subject-departmental, or mixed form of organization for reference service is most effective in large public libraries; whether subject bibliographies or the catalog and the classification scheme were more useful aids for research in English literature; and whether the subject catalog was an effective instrument for graduate students in social science.

However one may evaluate such a recital—and note its spotty character—it is still relevant to ask why research in librarianship, whether as part of the educational program or not, has not accomplished more. One set of reasons having to do with the technical aspects of the studies has already been suggested. Another reason—the simplest and perhaps most basic—is that very few resources are devoted to research in librarianship. Research takes people, brains, energy, time, money—and it takes a lot of them. Not much, relatively speaking, is being



expended on this activity (which in itself partially accounts for the spottiness of the field and makes all the more important some sort of planned and economical development). A few students and fewer faculty members devoting part of their time and disposing of a few hundreds of dollars of research funds—it sometimes seems a wonder that so much is achieved! And in many cases the students with most special training for this activity—that is, the Ph.D.'s—have removed themselves by becoming administrators. Thus, just when they have reached the point of greatest potential productivity, they shift fields. In other disciplines, holders of the Doctorate are productive scholars; in a profession like librarianship, they become administrators. The appointment of full-time research associates at three or four of the major schools and the establishment of a research service bureau at the American Library Association would help to alleviate the situation. The cure for the problem is more research, not less.

But are there still opportunities for useful research in librarianship? Of course there are. What the profession does not know is matched in magnitude only by what it does not know it does not know. We do not know how to educate librarians or we would not be instructing each other so often. We do not know the most effective way to organize and administer library service to children and young people—effective in terms of the productive satisfactions of the children and not in terms of administrative tradition or prejudice. We do not know how to keep the majority of people from leaving the public library when they leave school, assuming that it is desirable to keep them. We do not know how technically to operate our own shop most efficiently and economically; are we really selecting, acquiring, cataloging, classifying, and retaining books in the best possible way? We do not know the most effective methods of promoting library use for different kinds of people or different kinds of books. We do not know how effective our current adult educational programs are—not the Great Books program, nor the Great Issues program, nor the next “great” program to be adopted. A good deal of library promotion is based upon the assumption, on the part of some of us, that the library improves the reading of its clients by leading them from “poorer” to “better” books; but nobody knows whether it does or not. It may even be that by presently accepted standards, the public library could perform a more useful public

service by serving fewer people better; who knows? But anyone can add his own favorite problems to such a list. Many people think they know the answers to such questions, and undoubtedly some of them do. The trouble is that their answers often differ, and in the absence of evidence it is hard to know whose answer to take. It is even hard to convince some people in the presence of evidence! But certainly there are research opportunities in the profession. It is neither so perfect nor so dead that nothing is left to be done.

## CONCLUSION

As I see it, then, this is the current situation in advanced study and research in librarianship. We have discussed the causes, the characteristics, and the consequences of such study and research—or, to be more accurate, some causes, some characteristics, and some consequences.

In conclusion, may I quote a passage from the recent report of the President's Commission on Higher Education:

All the professions are urgently in need of leadership, of professional statesmanship. They need men who possess disciplined imagination, social awareness, and elasticity of judgment, men who can see beyond the details of their own jobs to recognize professional problems and obligations and take constructive and farsighted action about them.<sup>9</sup>

Librarianship, no less than other professions, needs such men. It is this need which advanced study and research in librarianship is meant to fill. The profession can measure the success or failure of the schools by their ability to realize this objective.

## Discussion

CARL M. WHITE

FROM HIS statement of purpose, it appears that Dean Berelson did not set out to present a case for advanced study and research.

<sup>9</sup> President's Commission on Higher Education. *Higher Education for American Democracy*; Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 83.

Nevertheless, a good case emerges in the course of the review and that fact is worth noting at a time when facilities for advanced training and research are being expanded. It is worth noting, too, that there are two points in the paper which amount to warnings against possible overexpansion of these facilities. One is the point about the symbolic function of advanced study. We take to a game like "follow the leader" pretty readily. Obviously, however, that game is one which can lead to serious consequences if played when loading a lifeboat or when loading society with Doctors of Philosophy. In either case, there is a capacity which is the normal limit, and large deviations from this limit mean trouble.

Another warning signal is flashed by the finding that over the past fifteen years advanced training in librarianship has not grown. "There has been hardly a percentage point of change in the proportion of graduate degrees and very little change in absolute numbers." That is an arresting statement. Does it mean that capacity has already been reached and that the expansion of facilities for advanced study and research is going to overload the profession with persons trained beyond the stations they will be called on to fill? Dr. Berelson thinks probably not, as I read his answer. From rather extensive correspondence which we have conducted at Columbia, however, it is clear that some people fear that perhaps the opposite answer should be given.

### REASONS FOR EXTENSION OF ADVANCED STUDY

Possibly, we need further evidence from experience before trying to answer the question conclusively, but in the light of what we know now, I share the view that limited expansion of the facilities we have had for the last fifteen years is in order for the following reasons:

- a. We seem to be witnessing a breakdown of the single, all-purpose curriculum of the kind we have known in the past. In its place is coming, it appears, a somewhat lengthened program of studies to meet the various requirements of the profession. It is too early to foresee in detail how this lengthened program is going to be organized; but, unless we lower our standards, some kind of extension of advanced study is to be expected as a normal outcome of the present reconstruction of education for librarianship.
- b. Standards in at least a few fields are gradually rising. The two in

which I have noticed the steadiest trend in this direction are: (1) administrative posts in college and university libraries, and (2) positions on library school faculties. I do not believe, however, that these are the only areas ready to absorb better training if we provide it.

At Columbia, we have in recent years been receiving a steadily increasing number of inquiries from young people who are ready for more advanced work than we have been offering. Undoubtedly, these inquiries have been due in part to stirrings within the University itself, but I believe my colleagues would agree we have not "pushed" study at the Doctoral level any more than we have been pushed by it. We have not rushed matters for these reasons: the need for basic changes in the scheme of education for librarianship to pave the way for Doctoral study; faculty requirements for a Doctoral program; and a resolve to have carefully selected students.

Turning now from the favorable case for advanced study and research which stands forth at the end of Dr. Berelson's review, let us go back and leaf through his paper section by section. The development of advanced training is accounted for by three major factors—the need of transmitting professional knowledge and technique not transmitted through the beginning program; the need of effectively criticizing, increasing, and improving the existing body of knowledge and technique; and the use (whether justifiably or unjustifiably) of advanced training and research as a means of elevating the status of the profession. There is another factor which is worth singling out for specific mention. It is clearly implied in the analysis we have heard (so I am not really adding anything new), but it is not quickly identified by cutting the pie in these three pieces. I refer to the bearing of library development on the qualifications of library personnel.

Libraries and library services have not been static. The transformation which has taken place in the library world, in what is after all a brief period, can be suggested by pointing out, as an example, that the volume of material now being added *annually* to the library holdings of the University of Illinois exceeds the total holdings of the University at the time when the library school was moved to Urbana from Armour Institute in Chicago. How such changes in size, in complexity of organization, and in daily services have changed over-all

personnel requirements for the profession, or at least for important segments of the profession, can be illustrated by noting that the attractive new building then presided over by Katharine Sharp, Director of the Library and the Library School, had to yield up the major parts of the library system several years ago. The original building now houses a special library devoted entirely to law and is presided over by a librarian trained in law and librarianship. She is one of several librarians in that library system who have received specialized preparation of one kind or another which was not necessary in Katharine Sharp's time, and for which her program made no place.

The University of Illinois is chosen for illustrative purposes because it exhibits rather plainly, but not too dramatically, that segment of the library world where changes have outdistanced improvements in educational programs of the library profession. Had the New York Public Library or the Library of Congress been used in place of the University of Illinois, the half-century picture of changed personnel requirements would have been more dramatic. It should be made clear that not all personnel requirements have changed during this period. I make no claim that it is the majority or even the more "important" positions which are involved. But where changes have occurred, they have been of a nature which oblige the centers for advanced preparation for librarianship to shoulder the main responsibility for helping young people develop the qualifications that are needed.

### THE PROBLEM OF SPECIALIZATION

Dr. Berelson refers to special libraries and to accepted forms of "specialization," two subjects which are more closely related than those outside educational circles have commonly recognized. Our new programs, particularly our advanced programs, must face the fact that what we are now doing to prepare "special" librarians is not very satisfactory to anyone. This is not the place to try to set down in detail what a solution should include, but it may not be inappropriate to suggest an approach. Does the desire to give a new deal to specialties in library work mean that the only way we can do it is to add a new course—or to add still others if we have a course already?

The orthodox way for a library school director to greet any proposal to improve training for any distinguishable form of library work has come to be to signify a willingness to announce a special course or courses devoted solely to this specialty. This is a beguilingly simple solution; it may be the best we can do for special libraries and fields which present similar problems, but I am not convinced that it is. The question I should like to press earnestly is this: wholly apart from the administrative feasibility of projecting a separate course or set of courses for each identifiable specialty in the library world, is it the soundest approach educationally which we can devise?

We begin to entertain reservations as soon as we glance backward and notice that the practice of setting up a separate course for each separate form of library work is a child of the marriage, fifty years ago, between the apprentice method and the elective system. That system, as everyone knows, has sired more than one educational sorrow. Our skepticism deepens when we notice that other fields have taken a different, and perhaps better, way out. Take medicine for example. One form of work encompassed by that older profession is obstetrics. The accepted way to train an obstetrician nowadays is not to apprentice him to a midwife, or to add to the medical curriculum a separate course on practical midwifery. This approach has been abandoned in favor of confining the course work to a mastery of certain content—a body of knowledge and technique, to use Dr. Berelson's phrase—which can later be applied in this or that form of professional service. The approach I am suggesting is that instead of planning our specialist's education in terms of the *form* of work he is to be paid for doing, we plan it in terms of the *content* of understandings he will require, and then see whether that content cannot be brought into relation with similar content required in other forms of library work. In this way, we shall avoid the excessive proliferation of separate courses for separate forms of work and thus not be beguiled into pulverizing the concept of a profession into a miscellany of educationally discrete activities.

#### THE CHARACTERISTICS OF ADVANCED STUDY

If I have followed the second section of the paper, the main characteristics of advanced study and research set down there may be summed up about as follows:

## EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

1. Advanced study and research now consists mainly in work toward the Master's degree (that is, toward that respectable but out-of-the-way degree which has so frequently amounted to a kind of detour from which a student never returned to pursue work toward the highest degree in course).
2. Advanced study and research, as of this year of grace, is in a somewhat confused, transitional state where one cannot with sureness generalize about the content transmitted or the extent to which it fulfills the critical function.
3. Advanced study usually involves research, without being very clear about what research is, what the research program in our field ought to be, or even where the leadership for projecting such a program should come from.
4. The record shows a spottiness and unevenness which calls for long-range and short-range planning, and for additional resources before our performance can be brought up to the goals we ought to set for ourselves.

To such a summary, I would feel no need of adding anything, but if I were to attempt to do so it would be in two directions. First, while the proportion of research studies in the history of librarianship is fairly high, it remains doubtful whether our program of advanced study across the country reflects the historical orientation, the philosophic comprehension, which a mature critical approach involves. Second, advanced study and research in librarianship seems to be characterized by meager influence from the humanities. The fact that librarianship is related to the humanities as well as the social sciences was considered important enough in Columbia's future role in the preparation of librarians, that the question of planting one foot of our program on the social sciences and the other on the humanities was laid before a staff of consultants in 1944. The suggestion was well received and since then we have been moving forward with plans on this basis. Let me add that neither at Columbia nor elsewhere are we making as full use of social scientists as we should, so there is in this statement no negative implication about the significance for librarianship of the social sciences. It is a matter of balance that I have in mind.

### THE CONSEQUENCES OF ADVANCED STUDY

I shall append only two brief footnotes to that careful summary of

the consequences of advanced study and research in the third section of Dr. Berelson's paper. Since the members of the Conference are drawn largely from educators in the profession, it is worth noting how easy it is to caricature the research experience. Who has not overheard in our cloakroom discussions dramatic tales of the rigors of that experience? It makes stimulating conversation, of course, especially with the uninitiated; but what is the truth about that experience? It is a fact that research presupposes stamina and intellectual power; but granting these indispensable qualifications, the research experience is, as many of this group well know, one of the most exhilarating ventures known. How many a research man owes the turn his whole life has taken to the thrill of original accomplishment, the pulse of hitherto undiscovered power, first experienced when as a graduate student he traveled through that solitary pass between the completion of a heavy class schedule and the completion of his Doctoral dissertation! It would be well, I believe, if a larger number of promising young librarians heard more about this other side of the matter.

Second, let me emphasize the value of additions to our literature which are made as a result of research work. Dean Tyler would perhaps agree that the medical profession was little more than a fraternity or guild for many years after Hippocrates. In the modern sense at least, the idea of a profession connotes a body of literature. The literature developed by the library profession prior to the 1920's was largely of two kinds: tools of the trade and works which might be characterized as didactic. Publications which represent the fruits of earnest, prolonged inquiry have only in recent years begun to appear with much frequency. This is a significant development, one which the profession should encourage with every resource at its command. Since this Conference is being sponsored by the Graduate Library School, it is fitting to point out how heavily indebted we are to the faculty and the students of this School for the part they have played in making such an observation possible.



# Training of Clerical and Subprofessional Workers

ERRETT W. Mc DIARMID

THERE SEEMS to me no area of librarianship in which library schools have contributed less to the profession than in the training of clerical and subprofessional workers. Except for a few minor efforts, library schools have gone blithely on their way, training people for professional and administrative positions and completely ignoring the fact that most libraries have, or at least should have, as many nonprofessional employees as professional ones. It is just in this area of nonprofessional work that one of our greatest library needs today goes unanswered.

I suppose it is true that a new profession tends to devote its major attention to increasing professional standards, developing a sound basis of professional training, and encouraging libraries to settle for nothing less than the most highly qualified library personnel. This is all to the good, for the success of any profession will depend upon the competence, ability, and imagination of its great body of practitioners. But in librarianship, the almost complete neglect of the problems involved in training library workers below the professional level has resulted in conditions which are very dangerous for the future of librarianship.

## DEFICIENCIES IN PRESENT SITUATION

First, I think libraries are dangerously vulnerable to criticism for being careless with public funds. No one would seriously contend that library budgets are larger than they ought to be. There are so many things that every library could and should do that it has to postpone because of lack of funds that any such charge would be fantastic. We are, however, vulnerable to the charge that we are not making most efficient use of the funds that are available to us. This charge is in part justified because libraries have in the past devoted

their efforts to obtaining professional personnel and increasing their professional staff without regard to the question of whether or not those professional people are doing professional tasks.

When a library comes to the point where it needs an additional staff member, the first thing it usually does is write to the library schools or to a placement agency. A library school graduate is obtained and the library school graduate is assigned all the additional tasks and duties the library hopes to perform by increasing its staff. It is inevitable that many of these duties will be of a clerical and routine nature; and hence the new person becomes, in effect, a part-time clerk and a part-time librarian. This is not good, for if there is any value in professional training and if the compensation for professional librarians should be higher than that for clerks, we are not making the most efficient use of our funds by combining two types of duties in one position. In effect, what we do is to pay more than we should for a part of the person's work and usually considerably less than we should for the other part.

Second, the failure to distinguish adequately between clerical and professional tasks is, I think, one of the major reasons for mediocrity in so many library positions. Clerical duties are frequently prerequisite to the performance of professional duties; that is, they must be done *before* the professional work can be carried on. Cards must be sorted before they can be filed; typing must be done before material can be checked and filed. And any librarian concerned with both types of duties comes gradually to do the clerical tasks first, because until they are done, other things must wait. And too often the clerical operations require so much time that the professional tasks are put off entirely. Thus the professional librarian begins to think of clerical duties as the most important, or as those which it is easiest to perform with little effort. The resulting loss in initiative, imagination, and morale is considerable. One of the greatest needs of libraries today is the release of professional staff from the routine things that so easily occupy one's time and a consequent forcing of attention on the unusual, the imaginative, and the discretionary in librarianship. As long as we take people with professional competence and ideals and put them to doing routine clerical work for a large proportion of their time, we are doing nothing more than making a good clerk out of a promising professional.

These remarks are not directed at libraries of any particular size. In the large library, it is easier to distinguish between professional and clerical work; the volume of work makes it easier to provide specialists in various aspects of work and to turn over the major performance of such duties to them. As a result, in large organizations we have such things as stenographic pools, persons doing filing full-time, etc. But I am speaking also of medium-sized libraries and small libraries where there may not even be enough typing to require a full-time typist. I doubt, however, if there is a single library in the country where there is no need for one or two full-time clerical workers or more. For in the small and medium-sized library, there will be most of the varieties of clerical work found in other libraries, without the volume. Hence, the emphasis should be upon turning such duties over to clerks with varied aptitudes and ability rather than to specialists in particular types of clerical work.

Let me summarize briefly. What I am trying to say is that if libraries are honest in their use of funds, public or private, they should adopt a businesslike attitude towards the tasks that libraries need to have done. They should expect to pay adequate salaries for professional competence, but they should also expect to employ, at lower salary levels, clerical help for clerical tasks. And this is not only an obligation—it is, as I have tried to point out, a step in the direction of improvement of library organization and staff morale. In other words, it is just good common sense for libraries to hire well-qualified clerical people for clerical tasks and professional personnel for professional tasks; and every effort should be made to see that a clear and sharp distinction is made between these two types of activities.

#### WHAT ARE NONPROFESSIONAL TASKS?

I think it is only fair at this point that we discuss briefly some of the tasks that might properly be included under the heading of non-professional. One of our major difficulties here has been our tendency to include as professional tasks every job or duty that involves some knowledge of library organization, management, classification, bibliography, or related subjects. In other words, we tend to consider duties as professional if they involve any knowledge whatever of library methods or routine. This, I think, is not a good distinction.

Without trying to make an exact definition, I should like to indicate the essential difference, in my judgment, between tasks that are professional and tasks that are nonprofessional.

To me, the key word is *judgment*. The professional is called upon to make decisions or to do things for which judgment and discretion are required: i.e., for those cases in which there is no applicable rule, no completely applicable library principle. The librarian must, from his knowledge of librarianship and the knowledge of a particular instance, decide what course of action is best. Nonprofessional clerical tasks, on the other hand, do not involve much use of judgment and discretion. The course of action to be taken is determined in large measure by adopted policies or rules, and the clerk is faced, in a given instance, simply with the task of applying the rule. Judgment is sometimes required to determine what rule applies and to what extent the rule applies, but the distinguishing feature of nonprofessional duties is that they are either (1) performed according to adopted practice and methods or (2) performed under the direction of someone who exercises judgment in deciding how they should be done.

With that very brief and fragmentary definition, therefore, let us turn briefly to a discussion of what tasks in libraries might properly be classified as nonprofessional and what must be kept as professional. I shall, of course, pass over the very obvious clerical tasks such as typing, simple filing (where rules cover all the possible contingencies), and manual work such as carrying, sorting, stacking books, etc. There is little question among librarians that such tasks are clerical.

In the area of processing activities, there should be considerable opportunity for the separation of nonprofessional and professional duties. Except for unusual or exceptional items, most checking of lists with the card catalog and other files should be done by clerical personnel. Indeed, with the exceptions of the selection of items for purchase, the decisions on where to buy unusual items and how much to pay for them, and similar tasks involving judgment and discretion, much of the work of acquisitions can, and properly should, be a clerical operation.

In the field of cataloging, much that is now regarded as professional could quite properly become a clerical operation. Given a main entry, it is simply a clerical operation to make cards from it.

Added copies and new editions can be cataloged by clerical personnel. Much of the filing, typing, and organization of material in the catalog department can be performed by the clerical staff. Further, certain types of material such as fiction can be almost entirely cataloged and classified by qualified clerical help.

It is in the field of circulation, reference, and contact with users that there are greatest differences of opinion with regard to clerical and professional distinctions. Certainly, most people would agree that except for what librarians call guidance, most of the routine recordings of circulation (overdues, reserves, etc.) can be handled by the clerical staff. There is great difference of opinion, however, with respect to positions or tasks requiring contact with users.

I for one would not attempt to lay down hard-and-fast rules on this point; but from all statistics that are available, it is quite apparent that much of the contact with users in libraries could be successfully performed by clerical people who (1) know the location of various units in the library; (2) understand the mechanics of the card catalog; and (3) know library rules and regulations. We must give up the attempt to have the patron meet first the most highly qualified professional person he will ever need, and concentrate instead on providing well-informed, well-trained assistants who will be able to answer simple questions, who will know when to call someone else for assistance, and who, above all, will know how to treat the individual with courtesy and friendliness.

It would seem, at first glance, that a very different type of person would be required for a clerical assistant in the catalog department of a large library from that required for the one clerical assistant in a small library. Actually, however, the difference is not so great. The clerk in the catalog department needs to know something about circulation and reference procedures and, of course, something about the classification scheme and the catalog, not only in order to perform particular duties in the department, but also to see them in relation to the service of the library as a whole. Thus, while the emphasis would be placed upon performing one specific type of operation, such an employee would profit greatly from knowing the elements of bibliographical methods, charging systems, etc. In many positions there would be specialization, but a wide knowledge of library techniques and methods would be highly desirable.

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### RESPONSIBILITY OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS

I now return to my major thesis that clerical operations involve a large percentage of library tasks and that clerical personnel adequately trained are essential for satisfactory library service. Library schools have almost entirely ignored this problem, and they are partially to blame for the situation that exists in so many libraries where professional workers are employed at clerical tasks, with the resulting great loss in morale and efficiency. Since libraries have a great need for good clerical assistance, it seems to me obligatory for the library schools to make some contribution. To dodge this responsibility is, in effect, to admit that formal education programs are of little value or assistance. It is only a step to the further position that libraries might just as well train their own professional people.

My thesis is, therefore, that library schools should make provision for preparing people qualified to undertake clerical operations in libraries.

I shall not spend a great deal of time arguing the proper placement of courses for training library technicians nor their proper duration. With the present state of library salaries at all levels in comparison with salaries in other occupations, there seems to be no question but that the training of library technicians belongs at the junior college level and requires a two-year program. I realize that many libraries, in employing clerical people, attempt to hold out for college graduation as a minimum requirement. This is, in part, a result of the fact that there are no good training programs in operation now to prepare such people and that the only way one can get many of the qualifications that are needed is to hold out for a college degree. But I do not ask you to accept this assumption in advance. I do ask that your final judgment be withheld until I have presented what I believe to be an adequate training program—two years in length at the junior college level. Then, I think, we shall be better able to decide whether or not persons with this training would qualify for positions as library technicians.

### PROPOSED PROGRAM FOR LIBRARY TECHNICIANS

In presenting the type of training program which I wish to suggest, I should like to divide the program into three aspects: (1) courses designed to promote general education; (2) courses in clerical opera-

tions; and (3) courses in library methods and techniques. I shall discuss each of these separately.

The first requirement of a training program for library technicians is that it should have a good sound basis of *general education*. Although I shall illustrate with specific courses, I should like to emphasize that I hope general education will be thought of in terms of outcomes to be desired and obtained rather than specific areas of subject matter to be mastered. If general education is looked at in this light, such an outcome as the ability to think critically and constructively would be a part of every course rather than the responsibility of a specific course in logic. In defining the type of general education proposed for library technicians, I can do no better than to quote the official statement endorsed by the University of Minnesota Senate in 1944:

The elements of general education may be rather simply stated. General education should enable the student:

1. To understand other persons' ideas through reading and listening, and, in turn, to express his own ideas effectively to others.
2. To attain a balanced social and emotional adjustment through an understanding of human behavior, the enjoyment of social relationships, and the experience of working cooperatively with others.
3. To improve and maintain his own health and to make intelligent decisions about community health problems.
4. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.
5. To participate as an active, responsible, and informed citizen in the discussion and solution of the social, economic, and political problems of American and international affairs.
6. To understand the fundamental discoveries of science in their implications for human welfare and in their influence on the development of thought and institutions; to understand and appreciate the scientific method and to use it in the solution of concrete problems.
7. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities as an expression of personal and social experience; and, if possible, to participate in some form of creative activity.
8. To develop a set of principles for the direction of personal and societal behavior through the recognition and critical examination of values involved in personal and social conduct.
9. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will enable him to utilize fully his particular interests and abilities.

These, then, would be the results that one would hope to achieve through a program of general education. I can illustrate this further by trying to describe certain courses drawn from the curriculum of the General College of the University of Minnesota and directed primarily to attaining the above objectives. Similar courses will be found in all institutions which attempt to provide for general education.

First would be the course called Literature Today, consisting of the following subjects: (1) the individual and literature; (2) critical standards in selecting books; (3) themes in current literature; (4) American ideals in literature; and (5) introduction to world literature. This course, Literature Today, would as the titles indicate introduce the student not only to standards in literature, but also to authors and titles.

In the general area of sociology the following courses might be part of the program of general education: Social Trends and Problems, Problems of Contemporary Society, American Economic and Social Development, and perhaps General Anthropology.

In the general area which I might term public relations the following courses might be a part of the program of general education: Speech Laboratory, Practical Aspects of Psychology.

In the field of sciences the student would select from: Principles of Physics, Sound and Astronomy, Nature of Chemistry, Elements of Geology, Human Biology, How the Living Machinery in Man Works, and Healthful Living. In history the following subjects might be included: Backgrounds of the Modern World, Historical Biography, and Current History.

I have not attempted to set up here a required and an elective group of courses. Eventually the student should be required to take courses in each of the four major areas: humanities and literature; social sciences, including history and psychology; physical sciences, such as principles of physics and nature of chemistry; and biological sciences, with emphasis on human biology. The program should provide for electives for students primarily interested in one or more of these areas. There would be opportunities also for students with language interests to specialize in one or more foreign languages, although foreign languages should not, in my judgment, be a requirement for the course.

It is impossible to draw hard-and-fast designations of the proportion



of course time that would be devoted to general education. As a very tentative estimate one might say from 70 to 80 per cent of the curriculum should be devoted to subjects in this area.

The courses in general education should be designed primarily for a broad acquaintance with wide fields of knowledge which can be adapted to the student's probable use rather than toward advanced study. The courses in the General College at the University of Minnesota, for example, are aimed primarily at providing a general education which terminates at the end of two years and which will, therefore, better prepare the student for living in American society today than courses which would give primarily the necessary foundation for later majors in literature, sociology, or other academic subjects.

I now come to the second area of subject-matter courses, those courses designed to improve *clerical skill*. Obviously, typing is a first requirement here, though it need not be a required course. Ideally, a large proportion of the students preparing for posts as library technicians would have typing skill and ability. Ideally, also, a large share of the responsibility for acquiring typing skill would fall outside of the course program. The same might be said with regard to stenography. I would assume, however, that the need for stenographic ability would be considerably less, and again the student might be expected to acquire this outside of the regular course program.

As electives rather than as required courses, the student with such inclinations might be encouraged to take courses in office management, filing, and business records. Again, however, such courses would not be a part of the required program, but would be available to the students with interests in those directions.

Still another area of what I might term clerical skill might be related to art and drawing. For example, courses in lettering, art laboratory, the making of displays, posters, designs, etc., might be available to students with aptitudes and interests in those areas and might well contribute to their work in a given library.

Again attempting only a rough estimate, I would say that it would probably be undesirable to have more than 5 per cent of the student's credit hours devoted to these subjects, and at the most 10 per cent.

In general, the aim of the courses in clerical skills would be to improve the student's mechanical ability. In addition, it might give the students a better understanding of clerical operations and how

they fit into the organization of a library. There should be some provision for the student to elect work in line with his special abilities or interests.

The third general area of training would be *library methods, organization, and techniques*. I should like first to indicate what would be the over-all objectives of this group of courses. First of all, they would attempt to give the student some understanding of the purpose, organization, and activities of libraries. I hesitate to say "philosophy of librarianship" here, for I think that involves something else. A library technician, however, should have an over-all knowledge of how libraries came to be, what they are attempting to do, and the means by which they are attempting to accomplish these purposes.

Second, the courses in library methods should aim to give students some knowledge of the material available in libraries and the types of information they provide. Third, the library course should attempt to give students instruction and training in the way libraries do things, i.e., the methods and techniques they employ to accomplish their purposes. This latter instruction should be designed with two ultimate goals in mind: (1) understanding why the particular methods are employed, and—more important—(2) learning how to perform them according to accepted library practice.

Let me outline briefly, therefore, a tentative program of specific courses in library methods. First, because we already have such a course at Minnesota, we thought that the best introduction to this whole subject would be the course which we call Use of Books and Libraries. This course has the primary aim of instructing students in how to obtain information from libraries through reference books, card catalogs, periodical indexes, etc., and would thus familiarize the student with some of the important library tools.

The second course would be one which might perhaps be called Library Orientation. This would be the nearest to a theoretical or philosophical course that we propose. It would attempt to describe the various types of library services and the various types of libraries. It would be a general over-all introduction to all types of library work, and it could be made practical by visits and inspection trips to libraries of various types and to departments within libraries.

Perhaps the main body of instruction for library technicians, how-

ever, would be the courses which we have thought of tentatively as Library Techniques I, II, and III. In these courses the students would learn specific methods and techniques employed in libraries. The first section of this course would be devoted to book ordering and processing. The aim would be to train the students in the tasks that are performed in making out order cards, preparing orders to agents, receiving books, engaging in financial transactions, preparing books for circulation, preparing pamphlets, clippings, and related material, and perhaps doing simple mending and repairing of books. Probably as a part of this course, as well as others, there would be some instruction in checking bibliographies and lists of titles to be ordered.

Library Techniques II would be devoted to cataloging and classification. The student would be given instruction in typing catalog cards from master copy, cataloging simple fiction and perhaps other books where the cataloging would be simple, assigning Cutter numbers, understanding call numbers, making cards for pamphlets and clippings, ordering Library of Congress cards, filing and arranging materials cards, etc. Instruction would be aimed at giving the student some experience in doing simple library operations according to prescribed rules and methods.

Library Techniques III would be devoted to circulation and other public services. The student would be given instruction in handling the circulation desk, registering borrowers, charging out and discharging books, reserving books, sending out overdue notices, perhaps answering simple reference questions, taking care of circulation records and charges, etc. This might also include some nonprofessional publicity tasks. A part of this course should be devoted to instruction in how to meet the public, how to find out what they want, and other simple elements of good public relations. Of course, it would be emphasized in this course that the student should be alert to discover specialized needs or interests and to bring the borrower into contact with the person best qualified to help him.

As the final unit in the library methods courses, it would seem desirable to have a period of library practice. Such a period might prove to be approximately seventy-five to a hundred hours, preferably in the type of library in which the student wishes to work. The hours of practice work should be divided, of course, among such

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departments as book ordering and processing, cataloging and classification, and circulation and reader's services.

Initially, it would be just a guess to try to determine the proportion of hours devoted to library methods courses and the other courses in the program. It seems fairly evident, however, that a total of somewhat less than one quarter's work devoted to library service would provide fairly satisfactory training. Perhaps somewhere between 15 and 20 per cent of the student's actual course credit would deal with courses in library methods and techniques.

In general, the library methods courses should aim to introduce students to several actual methods of doing particular tasks, with emphasis upon the methods used by the library in which the training program is located. Such students may go to any one of several different institutions, and they should at least be aware that there are several ways of doing things.

I should like to say one more thing with regard to the courses, particularly in library methods and techniques. These courses should depend heavily upon laboratory work or experience. Students would be introduced to the principles and the rules, but I should think a fairly large portion of their time could profitably be spent in actually performing library operations in order that they may become something more than just theories. I should hope, too, that liberal use would be made of graphic methods. Films might be employed to describe reader contacts. Certainly, many of the aspects of cataloging and classification could be presented by slides or cards projected on a screen. I should hope, too, that the instruction might follow operations through to their eventual conclusion, and if possible demonstrate the relationship between a specific task and its culmination in service to a user.

For the remaining few minutes at my disposal, I wish to mention several problems which I know have been in the minds of many of you. I assure you I do not have the answers to all of them, but some discussion may be desirable.

## OPPORTUNITIES FOR LIBRARY TECHNICIANS

The first question that arises is: what opportunities are available for persons with the type of training I have indicated? Where will they work? Are there actual jobs in libraries that would be open for

simple clerical operations, who are dependable and conscientious, and who have intelligence to learn how to do the operations and do them well. We are not interested in qualities of imagination or leadership. If such decisions are made and accepted, I feel sure that the people resulting from such a program will be interested in it, qualified for it, and satisfied with it.

I think I need only add that we are interested in persons with good character, preferably people with good personalities and nice appearance, and the ability to learn courtesy, tact, and friendliness in dealing with people. We are definitely not interested in the person who is determined upon a splashy career, earning a lot of money, or obtaining a great deal of publicity.

No discussion of such a program would be complete without some attention to recruiting. It seems obvious that primary recruiting efforts must be directed at the high school level if students are to be induced to enter this sort of training; by graduation time the students frequently have decided what their life work shall be. Any program directed at them later is too late.

At the same time, there are opportunities during the first year of college to bring to the attention of qualified students the desirability of undertaking such a program as this one. Both college and university libraries employ many student assistants. Library technician courses would not only make them better qualified students, but might lead them to consider the complete training program for library technicians as a career.

In speaking of recruiting, we must not overlook one very important source of students for a library technician's course. I refer, of course, to those library employees who have no college training and who are anxious to prepare themselves better for their jobs. To them the library schools now say, "Come back to see us when you have a college degree, or at least two full years of college." Many such people are going to be working in libraries for many years, but they have no way at present of obtaining formal training other than the long road to a college degree. Such a course as the one I have outlined would offer them the opportunity of becoming better fitted for their jobs in a reasonable period of time.

Some people will, no doubt, question whether or not a university or a professional school has any business offering courses at a trade or

practical level. Why not let the libraries do it themselves? There are two sides to this question, but to me the weight of the argument falls in favor of having educational institutions handle vocational training of this kind. My reasons are threefold:

1. On-the-job training tends to perpetuate the status quo. It teaches people to do things as they are now being done, rather than to learn new methods and reasons for doing things.
2. People at the technician or vocational level in libraries as well as factories need general education; there is little evidence to show that they get this except through some such program as I have outlined.
3. On-the-job training tends to produce compliance and undiscerning acceptance in the trainee. This attitude of mind is dangerous to the future of our democratic society, particularly if carried over into economic, social, and political issues.

The last question which I want to raise is one which I am sure has worried many people. Given such a program, given an acceptable standard of training, given students completing the course and receiving an Associate in Arts degree or certificate, would there not be the tendency among libraries to employ a library technician instead of a professional librarian?

I think it would be foolish not to admit that there would be many instances where boards of trustees, after superficial investigation, would appoint a library technician to a professional position, with harm to the library as well as the individual. Such instances happen now, partly because of a shortage of personnel, but they happen even in times when qualified personnel are available. There will, of course, be such instances in the future; at least, from a training course for library technicians one would probably get a better qualified nonprofessional!

I hope that there would be instances where librarians in professional positions would eventually be replaced by library technicians. As I have stated before, I believe that in many libraries today clerical help could take over many of the tasks that are now being performed by professionals. I hope that at the same time professionals would be able to undertake some of the work which just is not being done now because of the shortage of staff.

Finally, let me say that I should not be too much worried if there

were some tendency to appoint library technicians instead of librarians. Where such an appointment is unwise, it should not take a community long to discover it. Where the appointment is correct, no harm has been done.

Certainly, library schools undertaking such a program should make it clear by every legitimate device that the person learning to be a library technician is prepared to do certain types of work and is not prepared to do many others. With clarity and forethought, there need be little confusion.

While a program for training library technicians seems to be worth-while as a long-range program, it would, in addition, have salutary effects as a solution to some of the problems arising out of the great shortage of librarians. Many of the positions for which we are now seeking librarians could better be filled by library technicians, and given a respectable supply of library technicians, many libraries could release professionals for additional duties. But above all, library service would be improved everywhere if a clearer distinction were made between professional and clerical duties in libraries and personnel were assigned to the type of duties for which they are qualified.

## *Discussion*

ALICE LOHRER

IN THIS PERIOD of discussion, evaluation, change, and experimentation in library school curricula, it is certainly desirable and pertinent to consider the training program and the role of the library school in the training program for clerical and subprofessional workers. Mr. McDiarmaid has advanced several ideas for consideration: the need for clarifying and separating clerical and professional duties, the failure of the library schools to make clear the distinction between professional and nonprofessional tasks, the opportunities available to clerical assistants in various types of libraries, a proposed training program to be offered at the junior college level designed for clerical

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workers in the library, the role of the library school in providing the training, and a brief discussion of six problems that might be inherent in such a training program.

With some of the ideas presented I am in agreement and I will not discuss these. But by and large, I take issue with Mr. McDiarmid at three points, namely, his placing library assistants or technicians and clerical workers in the same category, his proposed training program at the junior college level for clerical workers, and the role of the library school in this training program. However, I expect that many people will disagree with me.

First let me say a word concerning the third point. Although I do not agree that the library school should undertake to offer the type of training suggested by Mr. McDiarmid, I do believe that library schools should assume responsibility for planning the right type of training needed and should aid in securing the cooperation of proper agencies to give this instruction. As I later develop my remarks I hope my point will be made clear.

In discussing briefly the first issue, I would like to raise a general question which concerns the major premise upon which Mr. McDiarmid's paper is predicated and which points up a significant difference of opinion between Mr. McDiarmid and me. From my point of view, there should be a sharp distinction made between a clerical worker and a subprofessional library assistant. According to his paper, Mr. McDiarmid makes no such distinction. I would like to ask the question: are they one and the same? Are they one and the same in all types of libraries? If there is no distinction, then, would it not be clearer to reword the title of the paper and have it read: "Training of Clerical or Subprofessional Workers"? This may sound like splitting hairs, but it is involved in the reasons why I do not agree with Mr. McDiarmid's proposed training program and his suggested place of the library school in this training program.

### HOW MANY TYPES OF LIBRARY WORKERS?

First of all, from my experience as a librarian and from my objective contemplation of the library profession as a library school faculty member, I am more and more convinced that there are three, not two, distinct types of workers needed in our libraries today. Mr. McDiarmid cites two—the professional librarian and the clerical



worker. I suggest three—the professional librarian, the subprofessional library assistant or technician, and the clerical worker. It is the intermediate position which I do not find in Mr. McDiarmid's paper, but a consideration of which played a vital part in the early planning of the new training program at the University of Illinois Library School. I single out our program only because it is the one with which I am most familiar.

It would seem that first there is a need for the professional librarian with a rich academic and professional training who, in Mr. McDiarmid's words (if I may be permitted to revamp his definition to this new classification), "is called upon to make decisions or to do things for which judgment and discretion are required: i.e., for those cases in which there is no applicable rule, no completely applicable library principle. The librarian must, from his knowledge of librarianship and the knowledge of a particular instance, decide what course of action is best."

Second, there is a need for subprofessional assistants or technicians, as they might be called, who have a broad academic background of general education, who know some of the basic principles of library education, who understand the place of the library in our modern society, and who know something of books and readers. These subprofessional assistants need a broader training than was suggested by Mr. McDiarmid in his junior college program. They would fill necessary library positions which do not require full professional training. The positions would, however, demand a skill and perception of library principles not needed of a library clerk. In smaller libraries, it is very possible that the subprofessional assistant may need to do some of the clerical tasks defined by Mr. McDiarmid, but a clerical worker would not have and does not need the training to perform technical library skills, to assist in reference work, or in a reading-guidance program of a library. Here I would like to insert for consideration a slight rewording of Mr. McDiarmid's definition which refers to the nonprofessional worker and suggest that the definition and many of the ideas presented by Mr. McDiarmid in his paper are more applicable to a subprofessional assistant than to a clerical worker. The definition might read: "Tasks of the subprofessional assistant do not involve much use of judgment and discretion. The course of action to be taken is determined in large measure

by adopted policies or rules and the technician is faced in a given instance with the task of applying the rule. Judgment is sometimes required to determine what rule applies, and to what extent the rule applies, but the distinguishing feature of the subprofessional's duties is that they are either (1) performed according to adopted practice and methods or (2) performed under the direction of someone who exercises judgment in deciding how they should be done."

In my third classification is the clerical worker whose tasks are cited by Mr. McDiarmid as those of "typing, simple filing (where rules cover all the possible contingencies), and manual work such as carrying, sorting, stacking books, etc." I also agree with Mr. McDiarmid that in the area of processing activities, in the field of cataloging, and in the field of circulation, most of the routine work can be handled by a clerical staff even within my more narrow classification. But I fail to see the justification for including a training program for these simple library tasks at a junior college level and giving academic credit for such training as suggested by Mr. McDiarmid in his proposed courses labeled Library Techniques I, II, and III. Besides being too detailed and given at a higher level than needed for the clerical worker, it is not of sufficient depth for the library technician. It appears to be a step backwards—not forward.

### WHERE GIVE THE TRAINING?

With this difference of opinion in mind, I would like to touch next upon Mr. McDiarmid's suggestion as to the proper placement of courses for training the clerical worker. He suggests a training program at the junior college level to include "courses to improve clerical aptitude and skill," and one which should be part of a two-year program. There is not time to elaborate upon this, but I doubt the wisdom of such a program as prescribed. Vocational courses in typing, shorthand, filing, etc., belong at the secondary-school level or in the business college program, and not at the junior college level, even if it is a terminal junior college program. Instead, might it not be desirable for the library profession and library schools to assume responsibility for encouraging the inclusion of units of work that are applicable to the library profession into the training courses in clerical work, both in secondary schools and in business colleges? When typists are trained in methods of typing business letters, they

could also be trained in methods of typing library cards and records. When filing methods are taught, library variations could be included. It is also quite possible that many students taking business courses would be in schools where school libraries exist and where students are trained to use a library and its resources. If so, they are already familiar with library variations such as catalog filing, etc. They know something about catalog cards and unit cards. The application of library units in the commercial courses would be clear to students. I know many instances where school librarians make extensive use of the commercial departments in their respective libraries.

But I have in mind a more expanded program—a program that should be extended to all agencies training the clerical worker in typing, filing, and business methods. There is not time to do more than suggest this possibility, but this training program could serve as a recruiting device for library clerical workers. It would fit into the vocational guidance program of the secondary school, particularly in the terminal high school program. A training program such as I have suggested would obviously not be within the framework of a library school program, but I reiterate the point that the library school should plan the type of library units to be included in the training program for the clerical worker, even though it does not give the course. The films, filmstrips, and recordings which Mr. McDiarmid suggests should be developed by library schools for use in such courses. I agree with Mr. McDiarmid that library schools have not done what they could in assuming responsibility for a training program to include all types of workers in the library field. But I believe we should ask other agencies to cooperate in the venture and to assist in preparing students to carry on certain library tasks. This may be implied in Mr. McDiarmid's paper, but it was not clear to me.

Thus disposing of the training program of the clerical worker, I want to turn briefly to the training program for the subprofessional assistant or technical worker. Without going into detail here, since complete information can be secured elsewhere, I want to state that I consider the basic library program worked out for the undergraduate student at the junior and senior level to be far superior to the program suggested by Mr. McDiarmid for library technicians and subprofessional workers at the junior college level. It incorporates two

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of Mr. McDiarmid's three-point program, namely, courses designed to promote general education and courses in library methods and techniques. But it gives, in addition, a far richer program than this and lays a strong foundation for advanced training, if such training is desired. It emphasizes principles and methodology while minimizing the skills and techniques outlined by Mr. McDiarmid. Mr. McDiarmid's proposed course in library methods is handled mainly by a noncredit practice course. The course in the four-year college program, however, is not designed for clerical workers, whereas Mr. McDiarmid's program is. That is a basic difference.

### WHAT SHOULD THE SCHOOLS DO?

The third area in which I take issue with Mr. McDiarmid has already been touched upon—the possible contributions of the library school to the training program of the clerical worker. I agree with Mr. McDiarmid that the library school should have more to do with this training program, but I do not believe that the library school should be expected to offer all such work within the framework of its own curriculum. Experimentation is needed in this area of training clerical workers. The University of Illinois experimented with the Mobile School this summer with seeming success. I believe more can be done with utilizing audio-visual aids to learning; these techniques should be developed by library schools. Other experimental programs are also necessary.

In conclusion, I want to say that though I do not entirely agree with Mr. McDiarmid's proposed program for training clerical workers, we do need to try out several patterns of training, to collect evidence as to the effectiveness of these various methods of teaching techniques, and then try to formulate still better programs of training for all aspects of work in the library profession. The library schools do have a responsibility to contribute in this area, and they should accept the challenge to provide the necessary leadership.

# Administrative Problems in Library Education

HARRIET E. HOWE

WHEN THE standards for library schools which the American Library Association was considering for adoption in 1926 were shown to the Dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, his first comment was, "You know that this is a twenty-year program, don't you?" Twenty years seemed a long time ahead then, but now the time has more than passed and here we are discussing plans which may culminate only after another twenty years.

It may prove profitable to discuss the present problems of administration in library education on the basis of the standards for graduate and advanced graduate library schools as adopted<sup>1</sup> in 1926 and as modified<sup>2</sup> in 1933 by action of the American Library Association Councils of those dates. Therefore, the following topics with which the administrator has to deal will be touched upon as lightly or as emphatically as each topic requires: Organization, Administrative and Instructional Staff, Financial Status, Library Facilities, Requirements for Admission, Curriculum, and Degrees.

## ORGANIZATION

The standards of 1926 stated that a graduate library school shall be connected with an approved degree-conferring institution, and that the advanced graduate school should be an integral part of a university which meets the standards for graduate study laid down by the Association of American Universities.

These two forward-looking statements are applicable in 1948 when seven library schools have announced that they are joining Denver in a program leading to a Master's degree for the fifth college year.

<sup>1</sup> "The Second Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XX (1926), 449-52.

<sup>2</sup> American Library Association Council, "Minimum Requirements for Library Schools," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXVII (1933), 610-13.

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Each of the eight schools (Chicago, Columbia, Denver, Emory, Illinois, Pittsburgh, Southern California, and Western Reserve) has the connection for graduate study required by the 1926 standards. Three of these schools are classified as Type I and already have been granting the Master's degree, but for the sixth, not the fifth, year. The other two Type I schools also have the connections for graduate study. Four of these eight schools were classified as Type II, since they accepted only college graduates, granting a B.S. in L.S. degree. A few of the other fourteen Type II schools might have difficulty in adjusting to the new plan because they are not directly connected with an institution which can grant higher degrees. The final one of these eight schools was classified as Type III because it accepted a few carefully chosen seniors as well as college graduates, granting an A.B. to the seniors and a B.S. in L.S. to the college graduates. A few of the other thirteen Type III schools are so connected that they could meet this requirement for graduate work if they cared to change to the new plan.

### ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF

In 1926, under this heading, was the following statement:

The standards observed in the other graduate schools of the university shall apply as to educational qualifications, professional experience, efficiency in teaching, numerical strength, title of positions, and rights and privileges. It is highly desirable that the executive officer give full time to the library school.<sup>3</sup>

In the same report of the American Library Association Board of Education for Librarianship is the following sentence: "It is interesting to note that in all but one of the accredited library schools connected with colleges or universities members of the faculties now have professorial rank. Illinois, Simmons, Washington, and Western Reserve each have at least one full professor."<sup>4</sup>

The report of the Dean of the School of Library Service at Columbia University<sup>5</sup> for June 1947, contains these policies suggested for faculty development there:

<sup>3</sup> "The Second Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XX (1926), 452.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 424.

<sup>5</sup> Columbia University, *Report of the Dean of the School of Library Service for the Academic Year Ending June 30, 1947* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1947), p. 10.

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1. Increase the proportion of positions in the upper academic ranks. There is at present an abnormally heavy concentration in the rank of Assistant Professor.
2. Develop a faculty qualified to carry instruction and research at the graduate level.
3. Appoint to a vacant position the best qualified person available anywhere in the field.
4. Make promotions on evidence of academic ability to help create an outstanding center of library leadership.
  - a. What specific evidence of intellectual power has the person in question shown?
  - b. How do his intellectual stature and his academic attainments compare with those of his colleagues elsewhere in the university?
  - c. What has he done at his present post which is worthy of note?

In order to see how the present staffs meet these 1926 and 1947 requisites, Table 1 has been compiled from the latest announcements of the eight schools offering the Master's as a fifth-year degree. It is arranged secondarily by the classification given these schools at the latest accreditation by the Board of Education for Librarianship.<sup>6</sup>

Table 1 makes no distinction between full- or part-time employ-

TABLE 1  
ACADEMIC RANKS AND DEGREES OF FACULTIES BY  
ACCREDITED LIBRARY SCHOOLS OFFERING FIFTH-  
YEAR MASTER'S DEGREE, 1948-49

LIBRARY SCHOOLS	TITLES					DEGREES					
	Profs.	Assoc. Profs.	Asst. Profs.	Instrs.	Assts.	Doctor	Master	B. S. in L.S.*	A.B.	None	Total
<b>TYPE 1</b>											
Chicago	3	2	2	3	1	6	3	1	1		11
Columbia	4	2	7	1	7	5	11	3		2	21
Illinois	2	3	3	2	2	4	3	5			12
<b>TYPE 2</b>											
Emory	1	2	1		1	1	3	1			5
Pittsburgh	2	1	2	3		1	3	4			8
S. California	2	2			2	5		1			6
Western Reserve	2	3					3	2			5
<b>TYPE 3</b>											
Denver	4	2	1	1	1	3	4		2		9
<b>Totals</b>	20	17	16	10	14	25	30	17	3	2	77

\* or equivalent.

<sup>6</sup> American Library Association, "Accredited Library Schools," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XL (December 15, 1947), H98-H99.

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ment. There are 20 professors, 17 associate professors, 16 assistant professors, 10 instructors, and 14 assistants in the schools. When this distribution is compared with the figures for 1926, it is seen that these eight schools have five times as many full professors as did the fourteen schools accredited in 1926. (Distinction was hard to make in Table 1 between instructors and assistants, and probably some error has occurred.)

High academic degrees have become prevalent, about 70 per cent of the staff holding a Doctor's or a Master's degree. No distinction was made in Table 1 between honorary and earned Doctor's or Master's degrees, or between a Master's in a subject or in a library field, or whether they represented five or six years of college work. About 22 per cent of the degrees noted in Table 1 are the B.S. in L.S., the B.L.S. or the equivalent. These latter degrees probably represent one or two years of postgraduate study, but may represent four college years including one or two years of library courses. Further additions to the recorded faculty are promised by some of these schools in their announcements.

TABLE 2  
DEGREES OF FACULTIES IN ACCREDITED LIBRARY  
SCHOOLS OFFERING FIFTH-YEAR MASTER'S  
DEGREE, 1948-49, BY ACADEMIC RANKS

TITLES	DEGREES					
	Doctor	Master	B.S. in L.S.*	A.B.	None	Total
Professor	14	3	3			20
Assoc. Prof.	6	8	3			17
Assist. Prof.	4	11	1			16
Instructors		4	4	2		10
Assistants	1	4	6	1	2	14
Totals	25	30	17	3	2	77

\* or equivalent.

Table 2 shows the relation between professorial titles and degrees held by the faculties of the eight schools. More than half (fourteen) of the twenty-five Doctor's degrees are possessed by full professors, and all but one of the other eleven by the associate professors (six) and the assistant professors (four). One deviation from a good correlation in Table 2 is the number of B.S. in L.S., B.L.S., or equivalent credentials in the professorial groups. As mentioned earlier, these



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degrees probably were conferred for one or more years of post-graduate study and are doubtless accompanied by years of effective teaching and library experience. A few retirements announced for the autumn of 1948 will change this picture. The two with no college work listed are experts in their fields.

The importance of the trend toward higher-caliber faculty members with a larger amount of graduate study has active support from the profession at large. The Southeastern Conference on Library Education held in Atlanta, Georgia, February 29–March 6, 1948, stressed the immediate necessity for the development of programs of graduate study which will require stronger faculties and adequate resources.<sup>7</sup>

The program should be characterized by the spirit and methods of graduate study approached from the standpoint of problem solving. The program at the graduate level should be handled by a faculty competent to perform at the graduate level.<sup>8</sup>

Anita Hostetter in her paper presented to this southern conference said, "The new programs for the Master's degree will presumably require faculty, in some cases, additional members, who are qualified to meet the requirements for the graduate faculty in their own institutions."<sup>9</sup>

At the same meeting Louis Round Wilson said, "Library schools require more instructors with extensive graduate and professional education."<sup>10</sup> He in turn quoted the late President Butler of Columbia as stating four essentials for successful and productive graduate work. The first two are applicable here:

Strong guiding personalities, rich in scholarship; opportunity for personal contact and close relationship between these personalities and those who come to them for stimulus and guidance.<sup>11</sup>

### SIZE OF FACULTY AND STAFF

The "numerical strength" of these faculties mentioned in the 1926 standards varies with the size of the student body. The report of the Dean at Columbia states his objective thus:

<sup>7</sup> Southeastern Library Association, *Southeastern Conference on Library Education, February 29–March 6, 1948* (Atlanta: Southeastern Library Association, 1948), p. 7.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 25.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 39.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 32.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 38.

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Hold the size of the faculty supported by the budget of the school to a necessary minimum. The school should undertake to handle the subject matter which belongs in its special province, but it should draw upon other departments for instruction in their fields.<sup>12</sup>

This interrelation of the faculties of the several schools or divisions of a university is highly desirable. Whether or not the faculty members drawn from another department would be paid extra for such service and where the "extra" would come from, unless from the library school budget, depend upon the administrative ruling in such matters in different institutions. At the University of Denver, this compensation comes from the library school budget. Two of the Denver professors shown in Table 1 are available under the University ruling on rate of pay for overload. One is the head of the Research Bureau and the other is the head of the Personnel Institute. The Southern Conference also recommended "the full utilization of related disciplines in the university pertinent to librarianship."<sup>13</sup> The latest announcements from the seven schools starting the new program show appreciation of this desirable interplay of disciplines. From the experience of a year at Denver—where, in addition to the work given by the two part-time professors, a quarter of academic subject courses in many fields has been successfully integrated with the thesis and the library courses—a greater appreciation of work done in both academic and professional faculties has resulted.

In many library schools, however, the small size of the faculties has militated against the ideals for graduate study pronounced by the late President Butler. Certainly, with the new programs, additional help should be made available for the supervision of theses and professional projects.

The President's Commission on Higher Education in its volume on finance says:

High-quality instruction is the number one requisite of higher education. Unless there is an adequate number of competent faculty members in our colleges and universities, the best in higher education cannot be attained.<sup>14</sup>

<sup>12</sup> Columbia University, *Op. cit.*, p. 10.

<sup>13</sup> Southeastern Library Association, *Op. cit.*, p. 7.

<sup>14</sup> President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*: Vol. V, *Financing Higher Education* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 14.

The final sentence under the statement in the 1926 standards concerning administrative and instructional staff reads, "It is highly desirable that the executive officer give full time to the library school."<sup>15</sup> This sentence was put in because of the prevalence in 1926 of part-time faculties, and particularly of part-time executive officers. However, over the years changes have been made which have brought more full-time teachers and deans who are not figureheads. The tendency recently has been observed, however, that financial pressure is again operating to bring about a combination of the two top jobs, such as Director of the Library and the Dean of the Library School, at a high salary, with a resultant lessening of the salary for the assistant librarian and the assistant dean or director. It is good to note from the Columbia Dean's report that that situation is not to prevail there:

The wisdom of coordinating the activities of a library school and the university library system by placing them under a single head, as at Columbia, depends to a large extent on the readiness of the university to create on either side of the central officer positions capable of attracting men of high promise. Columbia has been willing to do this.<sup>16</sup>

If the total staff for the two organizations were to be no stronger, in number or kind, than the total which the two would require if separately administered, then the combined responsibility would clearly be too heavy for one man to carry. On the other hand, if better coordination of the libraries and the School is desired than separate control normally affords, it ought to be possible to create a supporting organization which would keep the load from being excessive.<sup>17</sup>

Whether or not the school shall be a separate organization with a dean responsible to the president of the university as at Columbia, or a school or a division within the Graduate School with an executive officer responsible to the dean of that organization, must be answered by conditions in the local university. There are good arguments for either plan. At Denver where tentative connections with the Graduate College were initiated during the 1947 summer session, the preponderance of favorable arguments are on the side of inclusion in the

<sup>15</sup> "The Second Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XX (1926), p. 452.

<sup>16</sup> Columbia University, *Op. cit.*, p. 6.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 12.

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Graduate College. The interrelation of faculties has been more easily accomplished under the new plan, although as a separate school Denver has had such aid in the past. For example, statistical methods for libraries has been taught through the years by the head of the research bureau. The minor in academic subjects which accompanies the major in librarianship, however, is new and the indications are that the comparative ease with which cooperation in the different disciplines has been attained is attributable primarily to the Graduate College connection.

### FINANCIAL PROVISION AND LIBRARY FACILITIES

The standards in 1926 stated that "The financial provision for the school shall be such as to guarantee a faculty adequately salaried and sufficient in number to allow for research, to ensure an appropriate environment for graduate study, and otherwise to meet developments in the library profession. Library facilities should be adequate for research."<sup>18</sup>

The Southeastern Conference in 1948 recorded it this way: "The institution in which the graduate program is given should have adequate financial and library resources to support the program."<sup>19</sup> Miss Hostetter in 1948 said: "Larger space for the library schools and budgets sufficient to support the new program will be essential for the success of each venture."<sup>20</sup>

The late President Butler's third and fourth essentials for successful and productive graduate work are as follows:

The necessary equipment or apparatus for independent study and research, whether in libraries, in museums, or in laboratories; and the responsibility placed on the graduate student for carrying his own special studies without prescribed attendance upon given lectures or any other restrictions upon his own disposition of the time spent in academic residence.<sup>21</sup>

The question of adequate salaries is more than an academic one. The high cost of living has forced higher salaries for librarians, but in some cases the library school salaries have not kept pace. Where

<sup>18</sup> "The Second Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XX (1926), p. 452.

<sup>19</sup> Southeastern Library Association, *Op. cit.*, p. 25.

<sup>20</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 32.

<sup>21</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 38.

the school is an integral part of a university that has a salary schedule based on rank, and the library school staff has comparable rank with other faculty members of comparable attainments, the problem of salary adjustments is partially solved. However, some localities have lower salary rates in general than other localities so that the administrator must be on the alert to keep his faculty on a par with the professional salaries at large and not just on a par in the local distribution. Otherwise, there may be bad feelings engendered which may result in lowered morale, restlessness, or in a high rate of turnover in the staff.

Aside from adequate salaries, the budget should provide travel funds and research funds for use of the faculty. Inspection trips and attendance at national, regional, and local conferences, not limited to library meetings, can bring fresh enthusiasm and zest for teaching and supervisory duties. Refresher courses in teaching as well as in library and subject information should be made available by budgetary means. Exchange of one teacher for another who is fresh from library experience and a later exchange in reverse order would tend to keep both school and library alive to new ideas and practices. This exchange cannot be easily accomplished unless the school has sufficient funds to equalize monetary arrangements, for sometimes inequality must be adjusted from the school budget.

The Board of Education for Librarianship in 1926 considered \$25,000 a minimum budget. In relation to higher costs, a minimum budget of \$40,000 may have to be required in 1948. What percentage of this amount should come from student fees and tuition and what from endowments, gifts, and other sources should be a subject of careful consideration. For privately controlled universities the President's Commission has mentioned 53 per cent as the amount needed from tuition and fees to help finance current educational expenditures.<sup>22</sup> For publicly controlled universities the amount stated is 9 per cent. In some library schools, practically the entire budget is based on tuition and fees, while in others no concern is necessary about budgetary considerations because the school is cared for by the parent organization. Larger endowment funds may be one answer to the question where it exists. All in all, a good budget is a highly important factor in successful administration of library education.

<sup>22</sup> President's Commission on Higher Education, *Op. cit.*, p. 36.

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## ENROLLMENTS

Enrollments in the fourteen library schools accredited in 1926 ranged from fifteen to fifty-eight, with a total enrollment of 553. The enrollment<sup>23</sup> of the thirty-seven accredited schools in March 1948, was 1,872, ranging from four to 301, according to figures supplied by the Board of Education for Librarianship. One school, William and Mary, is to be discontinued at the close of the 1948 summer session; but its enrollment of six full-time students in March 1948, was not so low as that at Emporia, with four students, three full-time and one part-time. The next lowest enrollments are nine, all full-time, and seventeen, consisting of two full-time, fourteen part-time students, and one special student. Judging by these figures, the minimum size of a student body for an organization to be called a library school might well be set up by the profession.

The enrollments<sup>24</sup> in March 1948, at the eight schools offering the new Master's degree program are shown in Table 3. This reveals a

TABLE 3  
ENROLLMENTS IN MARCH 1948, IN LIBRARY  
SCHOOLS OFFERING FIFTH-YEAR MASTER'S  
DEGREE, 1948-49

LIBRARY SCHOOL	STUDENTS			
	Full-time	Part-time	Special	Total
Chicago	68	14	1	83
Columbia	118	128	55	301
Denver	36	3		39
Emory	18	2		20
Illinois	34	35	3	72
Pittsburgh	21	2		23
S. California	39	7		46
Western Reserve	48	18	1	67
Totals	382	209	60	651

total of 382 full-time students, 209 part-time students (the majority of whom are studying at Columbia), and 60 special or nonmatriculated students, a total of 651. The range for the full-time group is from 18 to 118, and rank order places the schools as follows: Columbia, Chicago, Western Reserve, Southern California, Denver, Illinois,

<sup>23</sup> Figures from the schools via A.L.A. Headquarters.

<sup>24</sup> *Loc. cit.*

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Pittsburgh, and Emory. Total enrollments, however, would place the schools in the following order: Columbia, Chicago, Illinois, Western Reserve, Southern California, Denver, Pittsburgh, and Emory. If the first-year curriculum only is considered, the order becomes: Columbia, Western Reserve, Chicago, Illinois and Southern California tied, Denver, Pittsburgh, and Emory.

It can be said that in these eight schools in March 1948, there were 651 students as compared with 553 students enrolled in fourteen schools in June 1926. No figures are as yet available for 1947, but the number of degrees<sup>25</sup> granted for one year of library school from January to December 1946, was 1,005, with the highest numbers in the following schools: Columbia 99, Illinois 71, Western Reserve 70, Denver 66, Peabody 61, Simmons 54, Minnesota 45, Toronto 45, Michigan 36, California 35, Drexel 30. This difference between enrollments as of March each year and the total number of degrees each year is explained by the summer-session attendance and graduations. Where the same requirements are met for summer-session work as for the regular year, as at Denver, the enrollments often are tripled in the summer quarter, and often the August graduating group is larger than that of June. This summer enrollment is shown then only in the number of degrees granted in a calendar (not an academic) year.

The number of students in library schools in 1948 is about three-and-a-half times greater than in 1926, but still the profession and the schools are calling for more and better-qualified personnel to fill the ever-present vacancies in library staffs.

### REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

In 1926, standards were set up for four levels of admission requirements: for the first level, only two years of college work; for the second level, three years of college; for the third level, college graduation; and for the fourth level, college graduation plus completion of a first-year library school curriculum. In 1933 these standards were modified to cover levels one and two as above under the words, "and include the curriculum within the four undergraduate college years."

<sup>25</sup> "Students and Graduates of Accredited Library Schools," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XLI (1947), 430.

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The eight schools which are in the new Master's plan require college graduation, sometimes to be validated by the Graduate Record Examinations and other local safeguards, for admission to the graduate program. Several of the schools have prerequisite undergraduate courses in library subjects preceding the graduate program. The objection raised to "diluting" the four undergraduate years, which consist of 180 quarter hours, with fifteen quarter hours of professional courses (less than 10 per cent of the total) must be based on a lack of appreciation of the cultural value of these professional courses. If the book selection, reference, and bibliography courses are taught properly, with a liberal arts point of view, they cannot fail to measure up to many, perhaps even to the best, academic courses. Cataloging and classification lend themselves to presentation as logic and semantics, and they have definite educational value in the handling of many books on different subjects, if the mechanics is kept subordinate in the teaching. Library administration, with its discussion of relation to the patron and the best ways to serve him, has definite social value if properly taught. The way in which these courses are taught probably is the crux of the problem, not the subject matter itself. Neighboring colleges and universities may arrange to accept these undergraduate courses toward completion of their curricula for the A.B. degree, thus preparing more students for minor positions and for graduate courses in library schools.

Many other institutions besides library schools should be encouraged to give these undergraduate courses at such a level that the graduate library schools may accept the courses as meeting the requirements for admission to graduate work leading to the Master's degree. Also these undergraduate courses, if standardized at a high level, would provide sufficient preparation for many minor positions in libraries where the salaries are not adequate nor the duties of sufficient diversity to attract the student finishing the full year's work.

### CURRICULUM

The whole field of discussion on what shall be in the graduate curriculum is so widespread that one can only refer the administrator to the Southern Conference (quoted earlier) and its three pages of recommendations, among which are the following two pertaining to the graduate curriculum.



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Study that will give a knowledge of the methods and spirit of research and develop the ability to interpret and apply the results of research.

Study in subject fields related to the student's objectives.<sup>26</sup>

There is also the article by Herbert Goldhor<sup>27</sup> in which he says, "Current trends in librarianship would seem to indicate that librarianship as a profession, as a field of knowledge, rests solidly upon four other more general disciplines—namely, education, sociology, psychology, and public administration." The library school administrators may or may not agree with the trends mentioned, but they must be aware of their existence in building a satisfactory curriculum. The reports of conferences of library school administrators held in 1947 at Berkeley, Urbana, and New York and the meetings to discuss library education held at Chicago in January 1948, as well as the Association of American Library Schools *Newsletter* for June 1948, are good sources for suggestions.

## DEGREES

In the standards for library schools set up in 1924 by the Temporary Library Training Board of the American Library Association,<sup>28</sup> the Master of Arts degree was placed at the end of the fifth college year. The library schools which at that time gave a second Bachelor's degree at the end of the sixth college year objected to the change. After consultation with the higher degrees committee of the Association of American Universities, the Board recommended in 1926 a certificate at the end of the fifth year and the Master's degree after the sixth year.<sup>29</sup> Again the library schools objected, even though some of the so-called "two-year schools" had given no credential at all for the fifth year and only a Bachelor's degree for the sixth year. Thus was born from the protest of the schools, and on their own initiative, a new library degree—a Bachelor of Arts or of Science in Library Science. The Master's degree for the sixth year was accepted in 1926 by the schools with questioning, and in some cases with

<sup>26</sup> Southeastern Library Association, *Op. cit.*, p. 27.

<sup>27</sup> Herbert Goldhor, "Some Thoughts on the Curriculum of Library Schools," in *School and Society*, LXVII (1948), 433-36.

<sup>28</sup> "Report of the Temporary Library Training Board," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XVIII (1924), 263.

<sup>29</sup> "The Second Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XX (1926), pp. 450-52.

bitterness. As one director said to his alumni group, "If this school as well as these other four (which he mentioned by name) start giving Master's degrees, where will we get any topics for theses?" The long list of unduplicated topics being investigated by the library school students which the University of Chicago is issuing currently, tends to disprove this initial fear.

Seven of the eight schools which are now venturing on the twenty-year-old suggestion of a Master's degree for the fifth year are abandoning the B.S. in L.S. degree, but one of them (Illinois) is demoting it to a fourth-year degree.

The Master's degrees announced by the eight schools include the A.M. in L.S. at three schools (Illinois, Southern California, and Western Reserve); Master in Library Service at one (Pittsburgh); M.S. at one (Columbia); M.A. at two (Chicago and Denver); and three variations at one school, M.A., Master in Librarianship, and M.S., under different requirements (Emory). The degree situation has not been clarified by the changes, and the administrator who is still in the throes of making a decision for the future has ample variety from which to choose.

Columbia and Illinois are joining Chicago in offering a program toward the Doctor's degree: at Chicago and Columbia the Ph.D., and at Illinois the Doctor of Library Science. At other schools, doubtless, such degrees are now possible to attain; e.g., at Denver on completion of the new program the student, according to his preparation, may study toward higher degrees offered by the University, the Ed.M. and the Ed.D. in education and the Ph.D.

No longer must the librarian spend, as he did up to 1926, six academic years to receive two Bachelor's degrees. Thus the library schools in 1948 are following the wishes of the profession as expressed over twenty years ago and are making it possible for the librarian to receive degrees equivalent to those in other fields in approximately the same length of time.

#### SUMMARY

The administrative problems in library education that have been discussed here include those of organization, administrative and instructional staff, financial status and library facilities, requirements for admission, curriculum, and degrees. An attempt has been made to

compare the standards for library schools issued in 1926 with current conditions. The administrator is faced with demands from the profession for more graduates and for better-prepared graduates, and much attention is being given by the profession to recruitment. If the schools are supplied with the well-educated, well-balanced, alert young people they desire as students, the school administrators should in turn pledge their best efforts in building curricula that will prepare these young people for successful careers in librarianship, both now and for the future developments not at present perceived.

## *Discussion*

ANITA M. HOSTETTER

MISS HOWE has chosen an approach to her paper on administrative problems in library education for which she is uniquely qualified through her personal contributions to the adoption of the first standards for library schools and to later progress in library education as well. In the midst of many conflicting opinions and points of view in present experimental changes in library programs, it is wholesome to recall how far library education has come in the twenty-two years since the first standards were adopted. The history of that period, when it is written, will recall notable developments in library organization and administration, in the establishment of new services and in the ever-broadening concepts of what libraries and librarianship can mean in social and educational terms. For the same period can be recorded a parallel development in the education of librarians. This has progressed from an acceptance of "training" as the primary objective of library schools to the concept that librarians must be much more than technicians if they are to succeed in making libraries true centers for the diffusion of knowledge and of leadership in community life.

In 1935 Sydney B. Mitchell wrote for the Board of Education for Librarianship an article which is of special interest in relation to Miss Howe's presentation of her subject. He mentioned the growth in spread and intensity of training for librarianship during the preceding

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decade, and looking to the future, he anticipated special difficulties inherent in our profession. This profession, he reminded us, is "largely ancillary and therefore requires, besides knowledge of its own subject matter and skill in techniques, an understanding of public administration, community interests and relations, and of the changing ideas of education on all levels."<sup>1</sup>

Getting education for librarianship into the universities could be cited as a major accomplishment in 1935. Today that educational setting is taken for granted. Through progress in that respect, the foundations have been laid for developments which now occupy our attention.

Mr. Mitchell recorded the beginnings of the integration of library programs with other subject fields and other university activities. Present changes assume such relationships to a degree which would have seemed remarkable in 1935. The library schools appear to be approaching an actual instead of theoretical integration with other disciplines.

Mr. Mitchell deplored the rapid establishment of undergraduate programs which were encouraged chiefly by the adoption of state and regional standards for school libraries. At that time, the relationships between such programs and the professional library school were vague and generally nonexistent. Trends in library education today appear to make possible more desirable connections between the two which will assist in achieving in the future that system of library education envisaged twenty years ago.

The recognition of library schools as valuable contributors to graduate investigation and research was then generally withheld. Some progress can be noted in the last decade, but the function of the library school as a contributor to other disciplines on the graduate level may be cited as an area in which more progress may be anticipated.

In addition to administrative problems as presented in standards set for evaluating any type of educational institution, certain other questions vitally affect the degree to which more measurable aspects can be accomplished. If I were to separate for emphasis problems which appear to be unusually significant, they would be concerned

<sup>1</sup> Sydney B. Mitchell, "Education for Librarianship: The Last Decade and the Next One," in *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXIX (1935), 73-79.

with the personnel of the library school, that is, with the faculty and the students.

### THE PROBLEM OF PERSONNEL

One of the most crucial questions facing library schools is, "Where can we find a competent faculty?" Miss Howe has discussed the progress made in the academic status of faculty and the general acceptance of the need for faculty members who are qualified to meet the requirements of graduate schools in their own institutions. All this is gratifying, but where can library schools turn for the additional members who will undoubtedly be needed in the next few years? This difficulty for library schools is part and parcel of the general shortage of college and university teaching staff reported by the President's Commission on Higher Education. Minimum standards can set requirements for members of faculty in terms of degrees, of academic rank, of number in relation to enrollment and to the nature of the curriculum, and of similar measurable factors; but minimum standards will not guarantee quality of teaching or skill in developing in students the knowledge and attitudes necessary for their success as librarians.

Why are librarians who might be potentially good faculty members reluctant to enter the field of teaching? Reasons often given by them should be considered by the administrators of library schools:

1. Lower salaries are generally available in library schools than in libraries, particularly for administrative positions which are open to the same people.
2. The relative isolation of library schools on their own campuses and from libraries is not attractive to librarians who enjoy wider contacts.
3. A library school too often appears as an ivory tower where prevails theory divorced from an understanding of practical library affairs.
4. The candidate for teaching is required to meet academic requirements as represented by the possession of higher degrees.

Whether or not these objections are valid, one or more of them have in known instances deterred librarians whose personality and professional competence would suggest their success in interpreting librarianship to recruits into the profession.

Libraries today need many times the number of librarians available

or likely to become available in several years, as Miss Howe has mentioned. The shortage in numbers, however, is by no means the most important factor in this situation. Serious as such a shortage may be, even more crucial is the need for librarians who are fully capable of creating a "community intelligence service," as defined by William S. Learned in *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge*.<sup>2</sup>

Whoever would question the imagination which librarians bring to bear upon their work and its opportunities, has only to examine the plans for libraries made in recent years on national, regional, state, and even local levels. Based upon surveys, supplemented by the experience and group thinking of librarians and laymen, these plans reveal a conception of the place of libraries in their communities that has little in common with the all-too-frequent picture of a library as a storehouse of books, remote from the stream of everyday life. Their attainment will be possible only if librarians can be found who, in Dr. Learned's words, can "hold an exceptional place in any community. They would be the real pilots of its social, intellectual and economic life—the linesmen alike of its material and spiritual power, bringing knowledge and need together. . . . They must indeed understand their several fields of knowledge, but they must understand the world of men as well or better; their excellence is measured by their power to connect the two."

Bringing young men and women into library work is not the responsibility of the library schools alone. In recent months, the recruiting activities of many library organizations have been united in one campaign under the Joint Committee on Library Work as a Career. Although organized recruiting benefits from the values and impetus of action by a group, it can be only as successful as the efforts and the influence of each individual librarian. After all, the choice of a profession is a highly personal matter and the decision of a young man or woman is as often influenced by personal impressions as by impersonal facts and arguments. Upon contacts with librarians the young people of any community build their own estimates of librarianship. However lacking in a real understanding of libraries these young people may be, they nevertheless include individuals who can make of library work a career of service and satisfaction.

<sup>2</sup> New York: Harcourt, 1924.







# The Nonlibrarian Inquirer

ROBERT D. LEIGH

AS AN OUTSIDER sitting in, I am going to take liberties with my assignment as one of the three general summarizers of these proceedings. The logical framework of the discussions is clear enough: (1) definition of professional training as carried on in a university and the general evolution of library training here and abroad; (2) preprofessional training; (3) the library school general (or core) curriculum; (4) training for the various specialized types of library work; (5) research as an accompaniment of professional education and growth; (6) training of the nonprofessional library workers; and (7) the administration of the whole library training enterprise, now in a stage of transition.

It will be an interesting intellectual enterprise to draw up the points of agreement and disagreement under each of these seven categories. The two other members of the team of summarizers are better qualified than I am to perform this task, and I am glad to leave it to them.

There was a trial run of this summarizing business in Mr. Van Deusen's paper. After the speaker had finished his able performance, there seemed to be a few golden moments of emotional oneness—until voices from the audience and platform agreed that the synthesis was of the order of generality that did not resolve the concrete differences which had appeared in the previous discussions. However, this is not a legislative body which must agree on any program. These papers are meant to explore and to define agreements and disagreements—hopefully, to increase an understanding of the contrasting opinions and convictions of others. They should produce *thought*, not necessarily *satisfaction*.

Let me give you some crude impressions of the problems of the education of librarians as they have come to me as an outsider. As you know, such impressions of a visitor are often worthless because of his ignorance of the rationale justifying practices he finds novel or different. But occasionally there is an impression which has some

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value because of the accident of perspective which a stranger possesses just because he is a stranger. It is in this spirit that I report to you my four major observations regarding these papers.

### THE PERIOD OF TRAINING

A first sharp impression was that although librarians are planning the formal academic training of an occupational group that has now become, or aspires to be, a learned profession, it was commonly agreed among you that the training should or must be done in a year. As the content was described, my feeling grew that it is impossible to make such a program really succeed in the time provided.

It did not seem unreal that librarians should think of themselves as a learned profession of the general order of medicine, law, theology, and teaching. The library's strictly professional tasks seem to meet Dean Tyler's useful definition that they involve problems of a complexity and theoretical generality that require a definition, understanding, and application of principles for their solution, rather than automatic application of rules and skills learned by rote.

And it seemed to me proper also that library education should move into the post-Bachelor area of universities (I do not say graduate school) and should develop its own basic content, including a thorough conspectus of the literature of the major fields of intellectual and artistic achievement, as well as basic materials from psychology, sociology, and administrative science. It also seemed appropriate to unite carefully related laboratory and field work with this formal classwork. *But to do all this in a year!*

I accept the testimony given here that somehow this arrangement is necessary for practical reasons. As Ralph Munn (whose words always have the tang of realism) put it, this is all the time that present library salaries can buy from recruits for professional training. But as a former teacher in universities and colleges, I know as you do the difference between what appears in a syllabus and what students actually learn. And after spending ten years participating in an intensive effort on the college level to discover what type and quantity and sequence of material and method get the kind of active student response we may call real learning—i.e., learning that is incorporated so that it is acted upon, not vague, smattering impressions which at best result in temporary acquisition followed by quick forgetting—

I have the feeling that what is now being proposed is an impossibly overloaded program.

I felt a bit better when I learned that Columbia is going to fudge a bit on the time span, using a twelve-month year rather than the academic year. But even here I am not sure that the extra weeks are not to be used for make-up work on a nonprofessional level.

I breathed easier when I learned that Chicago plans to do the job in three years rather than one. In Chicago's case, the change rests upon the bold device of pushing the four-year undergraduate college down two years. This device is, I suspect, successful with the highly selected minority the University of Chicago is able to attract. It may not be possible to extend it generally to all colleges with such success.

I breathed much easier when Mr. Van Deusen spoke of the concept of the one-year library school program as inadequate and artificial. He proposed that the year be looked at as one step in a much more extended program for the education of the professional librarian. This proposal is, I think, more fundamental than its immediate impact indicated it to be. If fully accepted, it means giving up in class syllabi and classroom practice the orthodox, fact-crammed set of courses in favor of a highly selected group of fundamental subjects taught by teachers with the pedagogical skill to point up principle and to lead students to apply principle to concrete cases so that there is developed in them the interest and the drive to go on learning in their afterschool experience. This is easier to describe than to do. But is it not the only really economical and appropriate use of the precious year of academic professional education?

The proposal recognizes that at least the first half dozen years of practicing librarianship are a period of active, continued training and that professional education goes on, as was said here, until death—or more leniently, until retirement.

The proposal implies, much more than is now the practice, regular library leave on pay for return to library school institutes and round-table conferences for periods of one to ten weeks. It means that the library schools accept the planning and effective conduct of such continuation activities as regular and important parts of their operations.

Continuation activities would relieve the one year of formal training of many technical, special jobs that now press in upon it. The cry was raised recently, "what is the library school doing to train

the future library leaders—the future metropolitan chief librarians, for instance?” I don’t think the library school can locate and train such people in its regular courses. Leaders *emerge* after a half dozen to a dozen years of library experience. When they do emerge, the library school can provide them with intensive education in the problems and principles of executive administration and community patterns, which would be relevant and effective through in-service training duties. So, also on lower levels, audio-visual and other new techniques can be learned largely in the continuation period.

I confess to feeling a certain exhilaration when I think of the possibility that the library profession might make a virtue out of its time handicap and take the lead in embracing this realistic philosophy of professional education. But it means a definitely unorthodox concept of the formal academic professional year and an equally unorthodox concept of the early years of actual librarianship as years of continued professional education. It might mean a system of extramural examinations with certificates and promotions related to such certification. But these are subjects for long and detailed consideration once the general principle of extended professional preparation is accepted and the one year of academic professional training is seen as only a convenient way station on the road to professional adequacy.

#### NUMBER OF LIBRARY SCHOOLS

The newer definition of content of professional library education imposes severe requirements with regard to quantity and quality of instructional staff, and therefore only a very limited number of institutions would be able to do the job adequately. Yet I heard nothing about the necessity or desirability of husbanding the teaching resources available in the country as a whole by limiting the number of higher institutions with library schools on the post-Bachelor level.

Is this not the time for such consideration? To an outsider it would seem to be a necessity if the advanced programs are to succeed. I gather from the studies of existing teaching personnel in library schools made by Danton and others that library school staffs are a cut below the scholarly attainments of other university graduate and professional staffs. Yet in the new programs, these library school staffs are given tasks requiring deep and broad scholarship in close

and respected relationship with other departments of a well-developed university faculty. In my visits to Type II library schools, especially, I have been a little shocked to see library school faculties of three or four only, including a dean who may also be the institution's librarian, and a student body of twenty-five to forty. And this in universities of good standing with large and well-staffed professional schools of law, medicine, education, and even journalism! I wonder if such a small unit is not inherently as inefficient for modern graduate professional instruction as the one-person village library is for modern book distribution.

Suppose that instead of some thirty-six Type I, II, and III library schools there were twelve to fifteen Class I and II schools, located so as to serve the major regions of the country. I am sure that the enrollments in any one would not be too large to be handled effectively, even on the basis of individual prescription and guidance. Would there not be much more likelihood of having a large enough staff in each school to do the more truly professional job adequately? Would there not be more likelihood of having enough able teaching-research personnel to go around? Wouldn't the students enrolled in this more limited group of schools get much better instruction than now is the case?

As for the Class III schools and the larger number of unaccredited library instruction units, I have no impression other than the vague one that they exist to serve a kind of permanent emergency caused by the low salaries in the profession and the sparsity of scholarship aid in Class I and Class II schools.

No one but an outsider would ever propose that schools be asked to vote themselves out of existence. It is a painful process, obviously. It took the ruthless courage of a Flexner, aided by the directed benevolence of the Rockefeller Foundation, to reduce the number and to raise the standards of the medical schools. The law schools have followed a milder course: i.e., that of building a number of national-regional schools really teaching law, with recognized prestige, supplemented by local cram schools preparing for bar examinations. If it were agreed that the number of library schools should be reduced, effecting the change would require great ingenuity and courage. But my question, based upon a first impression, is only: "Is this not the time to consider such a change?"

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A reduction of teaching units would not apply to the bulk of the members of the library occupation of which the library profession is only a part—I would guess, numerically a minor part. Various estimates of the ratio of technical-clerical to professional jobs in libraries have been made at this meeting. Uncompleted studies made as part of the Public Library Inquiry indicate no greater than a 35 per cent professional to 65 per cent nonprofessional ratio. And we haven't yet discovered any in-between group of semi- or subprofessionals. It is recognized, of course, that for half or more of the country's libraries with one or two persons only comprising the staff, it is impossible to obtain an economical division between professional and non-professional tasks.

In any case, for the technical-clerical group, the formal academic preparation is not difficult. It can be given in widely scattered institutions. From what I know of the nature of the technical library tasks and of the qualities and limitations of junior college graduates, junior colleges would seem almost ideally suited for training and recruitment for noncommissioned library jobs.

Little has been said at these meetings regarding the principle of the widest possible breadth and option in defining occupations. Studies of the Youth Commission and others indicate, however, that from the point of view of the young person preparing for a job, it is of prime importance to give a training leading to as large a family of job possibilities as can be managed. And from the employer's point of view, it is equally important to define requirements broadly so as to open as wide as possible the group from which to select recruits. Following this principle, it might be possible for junior colleges eventually to define a single training program for technicians for a related group of occupations such as libraries, research organizations, larger business and welfare organizations, leaving the special techniques of each to be learned on the job. In any case, the junior college seems to me to offer the best possibilities for obtaining young people of the kind of personality, ambition, and work abilities needed for the library's technical-clerical personnel.

## DEMANDS OF GENERALISM

Almost impossible demands of generalism are added to formidable requirements of specialism in defining adequate academic prepara-

tion for the profession. When one thinks of a doctor or lawyer or nurse or college professor, one thinks of him primarily as a specialist. Quite innocently, heretofore, when I have thought of persons in libraries whom I have consulted I have thought of *them* essentially as specialists.

But it seems that there must be two kinds of generalists as well as two kinds of specialists. Library students must have a general education before entrance to library school—and you mean *really* general, some of you; it must not be the accumulation of course credits, but rather grades on a comprehensive examination. To this generalism in preparation for entrance to the library school is added a general-books core for all in the three or four major fields of human achievement—more general education. Then there is the core curriculum of library techniques for all and the special subject matter and/or special techniques for special sectors of the occupation such as university, children's, or special libraries.

The more education you get, the merrier it will be. But it seems a little unreal to set up the rigid attainment of all these specialties and generalisms as hurdles to be surmounted before entrance upon the professional library career. Especially, I think it wise to avoid fanaticism about general education. Some enthusiasts seem to have created as the object for their curricular formulations a kind of *academic* man similar to the *economic* man of early nineteenth-century economics. He is a purely theoretical creature equally able to absorb and to incorporate science, art, literature, politics, economics, psychology, and history. He *has* a body, a character, and a personality, it is true, but these are given and fixed and to be omitted from consideration entirely in academic education. It is a neat formula; with it one can, on paper, educate the citizenry solely with print—on paper. According to some enthusiasts it can be done even more neatly through reading and digesting a few Great Books. The trouble is that the academic man no more exists than does the economic man. Real people don't fit the formula, and they come out of any formalistic educational machine irregular and angular, chock-full of personality and character, with some areas of ignorance and others of great skills, and with a large amount of emotional cussedness. These are the *actual* educational products.

And so I suggest that the requirements of generalism for admission

to library school be such that the door may be opened as wide as possible to catch the best products of all our colleges—best in mental alertness and intellectual quality whether special or general, best in character and personality, most grown-up emotionally, so far as all those qualities can be identified by the battery of tests and interviews known to the fraternity of modern personnel and admission experts. There are enough varieties and kinds of work in the library profession to give full employment to all the divergent personal silhouettes of accomplishment you can assemble.

## DEMANDS OF SPECIALIZATION

Fourth, and finally, I have been impressed with the variety of types of library specialties you desire to put under one professional tent. Not only under one canvas but for a part of the time, at least, made to perform together in one center ring! You know the actual diversity better than I: persons with an interest and temperament to lead small children into the world of pictures and stories and books; subject specialists competent to secure, assess, organize, and present materials from all manner of fugitive sources—mostly other sources than books—for corporation research and planning units; college librarians with a passion for books; school librarians; rural librarians adept at driving bookmobiles over country roads; catalogers; information specialists; general executives with political and administrative skills.

Perplexing, certainly, is this problem of diversity for even a minimum uniform curriculum requirement. It suggests, I would think, a very flexible system allowing for individual rather than general prescription all along the way.

Most perplexing of all are the people who are preparing for the library business, but who won't come under the big tent at all. I refer, of course, to the school librarians. This problem of two systems of training for a group of librarians who are engaged in the same basic library job strikes me as of major importance—"major" because together the school and children's librarians serve the largest and perhaps the most important group of library users. I confess that this problem has me completely stumped. I only wish that more time and energy this week had been devoted to it, so that I might have some beginnings of a clue to the way the problem might be approached.

Let me warn you again not to take my personal conclusions too



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seriously or regard my fresh impressions as too fresh. They have no connection with the present or future findings of the Public Library Inquiry of which I am director. They are merely the observations of a stranger who was allowed to slip through the door and has had the valued privilege of witnessing a group of experts at their deliberations.

# The Practicing Librarian

LUTHER H. EVANS

THIS CONFERENCE has been an important part of my education—whether “general,” “liberal,” “technical,” “professional,” or “advanced,” I am not yet quite certain. Perhaps it is some of each.

I regret that I did not have more library school training myself. We are afraid it is of doubtful legality for the members of the Library of Congress staff to go to library school, but I did have one library science course as an undergraduate, namely, typewriting and stenography.

This Conference has been stimulating to me. It has also been embarrassing in many ways, because sometimes when some speakers said “we experts” I knew they didn’t mean me. However, I was greatly comforted by what Dean Berelson said when he made his somewhat reluctant admission that in time one can learn some things about librarianship by experience.

I shall follow Dr. Leigh’s procedure, and not try to sum up this week’s proceedings. I shall give you just a few conclusions—some of them tentative, some of them pretty firm as of now—which I have developed in the course of this week and the two preceding weeks of reading in the literature of education for librarianship. I also want to mention a few problems which puzzle me now and I hope I will puzzle over further. I will state these somewhat dogmatically for the purpose of saving time, but I assure you I do not feel dogmatic about all of them.

It seems clear to me that library education, as Dr. Leigh said, is rapidly entering, or it may already be deep within, a new phase. My impression is that the general lines guiding this new phase of the development of library education are good lines—that is, one can take encouragement from the trend that we are now in. It seems to me, however, that we librarians in general may attribute our group failures to our lack of vigorous initiative and wisdom in organizing and exploiting to full advantage the trends which sweep over us. We seem to be too much the things that trends work upon, rather than the leaders and exploiters of trends. I hope that in this case the

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opportunity will be seized by the library schools, by the employers of library school products, and by the leaders in the profession in general to push the new opportunity to the utmost, indeed, to push it far more than the opportunities have been pushed in the previous phases of library education.

This will throw many obligations upon the Board of Education for Librarianship, upon the American Library Association in general, upon the library school leaders themselves, and upon the employers, particularly the employers in large public libraries and to a lesser degree in large research libraries. I say "lesser degree" because I think the employers in large research libraries are already living up to their obligations in this regard better than the employers in large public libraries.

## THE GRADUATE PROGRAMS

I believe that the graduate programs at both the Master's and Doctor's levels are thoroughly sound in principle and should be strongly supported. Much work needs to be done in regard to curriculum content. There must be vigilant care to hold the work to the proper high levels. There must be a re-examination of the extent in time and course content of the two higher levels of library education.

One word of warning! If I may speak as a top administrator, I should like to urge that not all Ph.D. candidates be taught to expect top administrative jobs as their goals. There will be too few of those top administrative jobs to go around in time, and besides there are other objectives that are just as desirable, and in many cases more desirable, for an educated person.

I feel strongly that the high-level research training which the Ph.D. program calls for is a great contribution to the making of a top library administrator in a large library. I believe that that kind of training would have made all of the present top administrators in the Library of Congress better than they are. I believe that the division chiefs in the professional work of the Library of Congress as well as the department heads would be greatly improved if they had been through such a place as the University of Chicago's Graduate Library School. I believe that libraries demand higher qualifications for top-level administrators than a great many other occupations do.

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The achievement of the institution is in large measure professional achievement, and a general administrator is not adequate for the management of an enterprise where the product is expert knowledge of the kind one sees at the higher levels of library administration in the large libraries.

Training in public administration makes a real contribution to anyone who is going to be a "housekeeping" administrator or an administrative leader of a group of professional people, such as being the head cataloger over a large number of professional catalogers. Such work requires administrative skill and we must think of our administrators as including the leading professional people and not just the "housekeeping" variety, for which a certain amount of contempt has been expressed at this meeting without any encouragement from me. We must consider them as including also the leading professional people.

I do not intend to let the subject drop by saying that it seems to me that we should go ahead with these two graduate levels of library education. I am bothered, as Dr. Leigh and others have said they were, by the problem of education at the lower levels. Dr. White has admitted in some of the Columbia literature that this problem still bothers him and that he doesn't know the solution of it. I think that is quite all right for this stage of development. I think a great deal of work is necessary to find the solution to the lower-grade technical training program and even the educational program for the major in librarianship in the four-year college course.

But I believe we will be wise if at this stage we try to solve the problem of library education from the top down. I think that if we solve the problems of the Ph.D. and the M.A. programs—problems of content, problems of terminology, the labels that we paste on these courses, the problem of integration of the one with the other and of each with the subject-matter disciplines, etc., we will then see much more clearly the solution of the educational problem at the lower level. I think one reason we are in the mess we are, is because we did it the other way around to begin with.

## OTHER PROBLEMS IN LIBRARY EDUCATION

While I am on this subject, I may say quite gratuitously that I do not yet see clearly the possibility of a national system of individual

certification which would contribute more than a well-regulated system of educational course-making and enforcement of standards in the certification of schools. Perhaps our accreditation of schools ought again to be looked at very, very closely after we have straightened out some of the problems about the programs and laid down the general principles that should govern them. I do not think it would be useful to do much in the certification field until this other development has progressed somewhat further.

The possibility has been mentioned that the library schools may turn out too many people and that we will thus frustrate graduates who cannot find suitable jobs. It seems to me that we need not worry about that matter for a decade or so, unless some serious economic situation develops which leads to curtailment of the present level of library operations. I think there is a great absorptive capacity for the right kind of people in the libraries of the country and I think the pumping of that kind of people into them will contribute to the expansion of library employment. I know of libraries where the expansion programs have been held in abeyance for the simple reason that qualified people were not available to fill the new positions which it was sought to create.

I think we need better statistics in this whole field and I hope that the library schools and the Board of Education for Librarianship will cooperate to secure those statistics, particularly those relating to the absorptive capacity for people turned out at the various levels, in terms of the present size of libraries, the rate of turnover, and so forth.

I was disturbed by the fact that only 12 per cent of the graduates at higher levels are being employed in public libraries. I think that we must press for public libraries to expand the work they do in adult education, particularly work in giving expert guidance in contemporary public affairs, even if it means the curtailment of other services of a more ephemeral nature.

Some people are concerned with the vicious circle in which we find ourselves, namely, that the library schools cannot do the job they ought to do because the employers do not do the job they ought to do, and the employers do not do the job they ought to do because they do not know any better. It seems to me that the responsibility for breaking out of that circle rests upon the library schools themselves. I say that for this reason. If the present administrators do not see

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the point, then the way to get administrators who do see the point is to develop some better ones in the schools. If the educational leaders see the point, it seems to me it is their responsibility to frame the kind of educational program which a well-administered system of libraries in the country would demand. By producing that kind of product, and supplying it to the libraries, the schools will gradually bring the level of the employer's appreciation of good library education up to the level of appreciation which the schools themselves have.

After all, Mr. Dewey did not start out with an idea that he had found what the library administrators were clamoring for. He started out with an idea and made them take it and like it, and they demonstrated that they will take anything you give them, even if it is bad. I would like to throw out a little threat here. If the schools do not go ahead and do this job without waiting for the demand to develop, we are going to train more political scientists to be librarians.

### LIBRARY OF CONGRESS PERSONNEL AND LIBRARY TRAINING

I have been very much interested in this distinction between professional on the one side and subprofessional and/or clerical on the other side. Let me give you a few Library of Congress statistics on this point.

The present distribution of jobs in the Library of Congress, by Civil Service classifications, is as follows:

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Professional (P)	522	31
Subprofessional (SP)	328	20
Clerical, administrative, and fiscal (CAF)	488	29
Custodial, protective, and crafts (CPC)	311	20
Total	1,649	100

For purposes of library training, of course, we can disregard the CPC people and most of the CAF grades. However, there are a few positions at the top of the CAF classification in which advanced library training would be desirable; for example, the positions of director of the administrative department and of director of personnel.

Within the P and SP grades, the personnel are distributed as follows:

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## SUBPROFESSIONAL

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
SP 1-5	265	78
SP 6 and over (which overlap with the P grades)	63	22

## PROFESSIONAL

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
P1	101	20
P2	147	29
P3	115	22
P4	70	13
P5	33	6
P6	23	4
P7	16	3
P8	17	3

It may be that some of the SP5's should have some library school training, since some of them are occasionally put into the P1 classification after a short period of instruction in how we do things at the Library of Congress.

A goodly number of the P7's and a majority of the P8's are straight subject-matter experts or administrators. Many of them should get a Ph.D. degree in the subject field or from an advanced school of business administration, rather than from a library school.

Our estimate of the proportion of people on the Library of Congress staff who *should* have library training is compared here with the proportion who actually do have such training:

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Percentage who should</i>	<i>Percentage who do</i>
SP-6	80	10
SP-7	75	20
SP-8	70	21
P-1	80	10
P-2	75	20
P-3	70	21
P-4	65	19
P-5	45	18
P-6	35	22
P-7 and P-8	12	3

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Thus we find that 67 per cent of the total staff should have gone to library school, but only 16 per cent have gone. Now that last low figure is not entirely the fault of the Library of Congress administration. Between July 1, 1947, and July 1, 1948, we had 22 vacancies at the P<sub>1</sub> level requiring training in library science which were advertised as being vacant, 18 at the P<sub>2</sub> level, and 15 at the P<sub>3</sub> level, or a total in these three grades of 55. That is about 20 per cent of the total number which we think require library school training at those levels. I am sorry that I do not have the figures to show how few of those positions were filled with library school graduates. The reason they were not filled with library school graduates, in many cases, was that such persons were not available. We could use and we will use a great many more trained people in the Library of Congress as the personnel becomes available.



# The Library Educator

J. PERIAM DANTON

THE PARTICIPANTS in this Conference have heard thirteen papers this week; twelve of them were discussed in forms which might, in part at least, be called summaries. In addition, we had a separate summary of four papers. Four of the thirteen papers were in themselves summaries. The papers by Mr. Leigh and Mr. Evans are technically called summaries. Two days ago Mr. Van Deusen indicated he thought he had an impossible task of summarizing. I should like to know what he would think of mine!

Although I am not going to attempt a summary of these proceedings, I shall make a sort of token acknowledgment of the technical requirements of my assignment and try in a long sentence or two to state what seems to me to be the least common denominator of these papers.

We have by direct statement or by implication generally agreed, I think, that librarianship is a profession; that as such it is, therefore, concerned with principles and concepts rather than with skills and routines; that the librarian, in Dean Tyler's words, "is dedicated to the enlightenment of his community, to the dissemination of truth, and to the development of an intelligent citizenry." We agree, also, that the professional librarian needs a good liberal or general education, plus at least one year of library school. We appear to agree that all librarians need a knowledge of books and of people, that they need some know-how about the operations of libraries, and that they should be aware of the place of the library in society. We are certainly agreed that the recruitment of people in sufficient quantity and quality is a difficult problem which has not been adequately solved, and which is rather more the responsibility of the library and practicing librarians than it is of the library schools. As one associated with such a school I should like to say, however, that I believe the library schools also do have some responsibility. We are, therefore, in accord that we must improve the selection of students and their preparation as well as increase their numbers. Furthermore, there has

been no dissent on the need for, and the advantages of, graduate study.

Beyond this, and the logical applications and implications of the points I have enumerated, I think it would be exceedingly difficult to make any sort of a summary. We are not agreed on the precise content of either the student's general education or his professional preparation, on how and when these are to be acquired, on how they are to be tested, on how the selection of students is to be improved and their numbers increased. One might go on in summary of our nonagreement, but a complete recapitulation would take more space than is available to me

I should like to speak on four or five points, which either have not been considered or are so important as to deserve further comment.

There has been a good deal of discussion, and not all of it commendatory, concerning *the library administrator*. I yield to no one, and particularly to no Southern Californian, in love for books or even in love for librarians who love books. But I say quite seriously that if I had to make a choice for an administrative position between someone who had a "passion for books" and was a poor administrator and someone who was a good administrator but who lacked that passion for the other, I think I should be forced to choose the administrator. Books and other graphic materials are valuable and important only when they are used. As scores of institutions testify, from North to South and East to West in this country, the poor administrator, no matter how passionate a bookman, has been responsible for libraries which were nightmares of inefficiency, poor staff morale, inadequate service, and community disrespect and disregard. The good administrator, even though he lacks a passion for books, will see to it that his staff will acquire books and make them efficiently available.

May I turn now to Mr. McDiarmid's forceful advocacy of *formal training for subprofessional assistants*. This is, I believe, hardly less than a crucial problem for librarianship today, and for the reasons he cited. I should be inclined not to disagree, perhaps, but at least to question the idea that such training is the responsibility of library schools, or at least of accredited library schools as we know them today. By and large, such schools are attached to universities. It is not the function of the university, or even of the lower divisions of the universities, to train at this level and they are not normally

equipped properly to do so. This is perhaps a minor point. The major point is that such people should be trained, and in considerable numbers. Let me agree that it be done by the junior college itself. These institutions are definitely set up for vocational, terminal education at that level.

The American Library Association might well play a role here, however, along with the accredited library schools. For example, the American Library Association, in consultation with the schools and with practicing librarians, might plan a general and professional education program for junior college terminal education. The Association of Junior Colleges, I am convinced, would be delighted to assist and to foster such a program provided we showed in concrete terms, and I am sure it could be done, that there was a real market for the product.

As a footnote on this subject, it was suggested that the persons recruited for such positions be below the highest level of ability, intelligence, and potential leadership. With that philosophy I have no quarrel. But I would add that it would be only when we had made a mistake, so to speak, and had by chance recruited someone of the highest level of ability and scholarship, that that kind of employee should be permitted to go on for full professional training.

Do we want such people in libraries? Of course we do. I can characterize only as sentimental poppycock the notion that libraries will demean themselves if they employ subprofessional assistants of this type. We have janitors, clerks, bookkeepers, stenographers, dictaphone operators, and others who are doing indispensable jobs, who are satisfied with those jobs, and who have no desire whatever to become professional librarians.

Several times this week the subject of *examinations for librarians* has been brought up. Anyone who is concerned with the administrative end of education for librarianship, as I happen to be, cannot fail to be interested in such a discussion. There are two questions I should like to raise: How can we, under the so-called new pattern of education for librarianship, test for general education before admission to library school in those schools where professional education begins at the junior or senior college level? The other question is, I suppose, more in the nature of a suggestion, namely, that the American Library Association might very well attempt to secure funds for

that word, a library school (and particularly a school which offers a Master's program, whether new or old) is to be censured if it appoints to academic rank on its faculty one who has only a Bachelor's degree. To be sure there will be exceptions. But the burden of proof must in such cases be upon the school, and it must be able to make a very clear case indeed.

One of the tables in Miss Howe's paper shows that 28 per cent of the faculties of the eight new-pattern schools—men and women who will now teach candidates for the Master's degree—have themselves no degree higher than a Bachelor's. I am fairly certain that the over-all situation among library schools would be even worse than this, since in those eight are included a large proportion of the best and best-supported schools in the country.

Perhaps one of the reasons library schools have not achieved everything we hope for them and have not achieved positions of real academic acceptability upon our university campuses is precisely this fact. What is it that makes a university important or great? Well, it is a lot of things. It is money for libraries and for laboratories, and it is good students and high standards. But it seems to me it is above all the presence of men and women who are at once outstanding teachers, productive scholars, and great personalities. So, too, with a department—or a library school. And I fear that the number of such teachers whom we have had on the faculties of our library schools could be counted on the fingers of two hands.

The accomplishments of American libraries—their service to democracy, to education, to learning, to human progress, and hence the respect and prestige they are given in their communities—will be precisely as great as two things: the quality of the students which American library schools educate and the quality of the faculties that teach those students. We are now paying a good deal of attention to the recruiting of students. The schools must pay no less attention, in my judgment, to the vigorous improvement of their faculties.

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THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, established in 1876, is an organization of libraries, librarians, library trustees and others interested in the responsibilities of libraries in the educational, social and cultural needs of society. It is affiliated with more than fifty other library associations in this country and abroad. It works closely with many organizations concerned with education, recreation, research, and public service. Its activities are carried on by a headquarters staff, voluntary boards and committees, and by divisions, sections, and round tables, all interested in various aspects or types of library service. Its program includes information and advisory services, personnel service, field work, annual and mid-winter conferences, and the publication—not for profit—of numerous professional books, pamphlets and periodicals.

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